The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 16, 1901.

The Week.

Another important change of steamship control—the purchase of the Atlas Line by the Hamburg-American Company—comes to cast its light upon our sacred tradition that "trade follows the flag." In this case it was plainly the reverse—the flag saw existing trade and ran after it, and got it. "Trade follows capital" was the heartless way in which the Chairman of the Leyland Line stockholders explained the sale of their fleet to J. P. Morgan & Co. In other words, if money sees a prospect of a good return when invested in shipping, invested in shipping it will be, and the flag is simply *post hoc*. German merchant tonnage has, indeed, increased amazingly during the past thirty years. It was but 167,000 tons in 1873; in 1898 it was more than 1,000,000 tons. But we may be sure that it was expanding German manufactures and commerce which created the German merchant marine, not the marine which created the manufactures. In other words, it is not the outlet which fills the reservoir. German success on the ocean cannot, in any event, fairly be made to furnish water to the mill of the subsidy-seekers, since the Hamburg Company has risen to its present powerful position in the shipping world—owning 120 steamers of 630,000 tons—without any subvention from any Government.

More mutterings are heard of a European combination to resist American competition. But the troublesome details of such an anti-American League have not been anywhere brought to paper. We doubt if they can be. Is a tariff war on our products intended? Then this must be carried on under general laws. Germany or Austria cannot have two tariff faces, like Browning's lover, one to show the world, and another to show America when she is *not* loved. Treaty obligations stand in the way of any such scheme. And what shall it profit one European Power to strike at American exporters if, with the same club, it must belabor the heads of its neighbors, and be by them thwacked in turn? There is, to be sure, the old alternative of a general European Zollverein, within which reciprocity and low tariffs are to prevail, while outside maximum rates are to keep off the rude American. But the fiscal difficulties in the way of such a plan are, in each country, so insurmountable that it has the smallest chance of being adopted this side the millennium. At the same time, Americans would do well to give sober heed to these multiplying signs of European hostility. If not a combined tariff movement against our exports, we may count upon a series of separate tariffs aimed specifically at us, unless we hasten to follow the President's advice and make our own tariff laws more liberal. It is not merely our swelling foreign commerce that excites apprehension in Germany and France. There is ill-feeling there, and no wonder, at the Senate's contemptuous refusal even to consider the reciprocity treaties. That looked as if we were bound to be unreasonable, and justify them in being unreasonable, too. But trade requires the lubricant of something like cordial relations between the two parties to it. We should not aspire to be regarded, as there are signs that we are rapidly becoming in Europe, the best-hated nation.

The *Independencia* of Santiago de Cuba learns that

> "President McKinley has promised our Commissioners, after the republic is constituted and the political situation is settled, that he will attend to economical problems, and that the two houses—which voted the joint resolution of 1898 and the Platt amendment—will fix upon the economic concessions which will be made to us, to the end that—we may not die of hunger."

Of course all such promises are verbal. Nobody either in Washington or in California can say what Congress will or will not do with reference to the duties on sugar and tobacco. Hence, if President McKinley or Secretary Root were in the mood to make promises by word of mouth, they might as well promise 50 per cent. reduction as 20 per cent. The *Independencia* perceives the humor of the situation. Accordingly it asks: "By whom and how are these promises to be guaranteed? Who signed the Teller resolution and who signed the Platt amendment? As one law repeals another, and as the same House can take two distinctly different actions, we do not believe that our commercial and economic privileges are in any way guaranteed." The opinion gains ground that the Platt amendment will be accepted, but not without a full understanding that it demolishes Cuban independence.

One seems to detect a kind of shamefaced air in the very terms in which the Ministers at Pekin have at last formulated their demand for an indemnity. After fixing the total at the enormous figure of $337,000,000, they innocently ask China how she expects to be able to pay it. The first idea of arranging a sort of guarantee for the indemnity among the Powers themselves seems now to be abandoned. China must find the money. If she says she can do it, what more natural result could she look for than that the foreign troops should conclude to quarter themselves longer upon their unwilling host, and enlarge their bill for entertainment accordingly? If China vows that she cannot pay so large a sum, then the Powers will begin to eye with envy her securities in the way of real estate and movables. It is cheerfully suggested that the indemnity of 450,000,000 taels can be raised by increasing customs taxes. But the entire revenue from customs taxation, in the last year of good trade, 1899, was only 27,000,000 taels. To increase that to the needed extent would mean a frightful derangement of business. Evidently the diplomats are going to make sure that they shall never have occasion, like Clive, to be astonished at their own moderation. As for our own Government, after having urged $200,000,000 as the maximum indemnity, we do not see how it can join in any coercive measures to extort from China nearly twice that sum.

A French economist, M. Raphaël-Georges Lévy, brings together in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for May 1 a great deal of valuable information bearing on Chinese revenue and expenses, debt and taxation, and financial control by both imperial and provincial authorities. To go back to the period just anterior to the war with Japan, China's budget was balanced at about 89,000,000 taels (say $65,000,000). The taxes laid to produce receipts at that figure were a land tax, maritime customs, a duty on salt, the *likin* (internal customs on goods in transit), a tax on rice and on opium. The land tax is primarily a provincial tax, a portion of it being passed on to the central government. As under our old Confederation, a requisition for a certain amount is laid by the Council of State upon the various viceroys, and they pay, as the colonies used to pay, when and as much as convenient. M. Lévy prints a table showing discrepancies of millions between the amounts which the provinces are supposed to pay to the general Government and the amounts they do pay. He also makes it clear that a much greater sum is raised by the land tax than ever finds its way into either the provincial or the imperial Treasury, and says with probable truth that corruption and peculation are rife in this branch of Chinese taxation.

China's public debt, prior to the Japanese war, was but trifling. Since 1894, however, she has been compelled to float several large loans at ruinous rates, until now the total is just short of $300,000,000, on which the interest charge, with the sinking-fund requirements,

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amounts to about $20,000,000, or nearly one-third the old national revenue. If now this foreign debt is to be more than doubled by the indemnity, it is evident that the revenues of China must be greatly increased, or else a radical reorganization of her whole financial service undertaken. To increase taxation seems almost impossible, in the case of a people between the great majority of whom and starvation so slight a margin always exists. Can, then, the Government be reformed in such a way that the taxes actually collected shall not be squandered or stolen, and so prove sufficient for the enlarged demands? M. Lévy seems very hopeful that something of the kind may be done; and that the salt tax, the rice tax, the opium tax, and the land tax can be administered under foreign control, as the maritime customs have now been for more than thirty years under the direction of Sir Robert Hart, with similar results of greatly increased efficiency, honesty, and larger receipts. This, however, is not a matter to be settled off-hand. It is one thing to preside over the collection of taxes at a few seaports, but quite another to undertake control of the whole internal system of taxation throughout a vast empire.

Ex-Senator Gorman of Maryland has found that the election law which he pushed through the Maryland Legislature at a special session called for the purpose, a few months ago, is a boomerang of the worst sort. His idea was to frame a system under which illiterate white Democrats could vote while ignorant black Republicans could not. Independent legislators of his own party insisted upon eliminating the worst features of his scheme before it was enacted, and the trial of the new law at the municipal election in Baltimore on May 7, like the earlier one at a similar election in Frederick last month, showed that the Democrats have practically gained nothing by the change. The managers of each party teach their illiterates how to pick out on the ballot the names which they should mark, and it has been found that the blacks are more ready to learn than the whites. Independent voting seems to have been encouraged by the new law in Baltimore, as in Frederick; and last week's results in this respect were most encouraging. Democrats who care more for good government than they do for party, either refrained from voting or supported Republican candidates, and the Democratic majority of 8,633 two years ago was transformed into a Republican majority of 2,250. Rasin, the disreputable lieutenant of Gorman, had come to the front once more, and his chief shares in the stinging rebuke which was administered. It is a most cheering sign of the times that the Independent Democrats of Maryland continue bitterly opposed to Gormanism, and it seems reasonable to hope that this pernicious influence will never recover the power which it so shamefully abused.

The New Yorkers who visited Texas in a body, representing the Chamber of Commerce and the Merchants' Association, have returned gorged with facts, and brimful of enthusiasm for the country and people that entertained them. They say that Texas is a State of "illimitable resources, the development of which has only just begun." They discovered that the inhabitants are very much the same kind of people as New Yorkers, not at all inferior in point of character, intelligence, public spirit, patriotism, and the civic virtues. They have returned home with ideas much enlarged and improved, and they undoubtedly created the same favorable impression in Texas that they received there. It is seldom that the good feeling of the vistors and the visited finds such mutual hearty expression. Among the incidents of the trip was a speech on the Texas Anti-Trust Law by Mr. J. B. Dill, which that gentleman delivered at a banquet in Dallas. The good taste of this speech (which is published in the Galveston *News* of May 5), or of any speech on that subject by a visiting delegate, may well be questioned, for, however much the speaker may disclaim the thought of dictating a public policy to his entertainers, it must have more or less the appearance of a reproof *ex cathedra.* It was taken in good part, however, by the listeners, many of whom evidently agreed with the speaker in the opinion that the Anti-Trust Law of Texas is too drastic. We cannot think, however, that capital is deterred from entering Texas by that law. Even the Standard Oil Company has built a large refinery and made an extensive outlay for the storage and transportation of oil at Corsicana. It maps out its territory and transacts its business from that point with as much intrepidity and abandon as in any Northern State.

The scandalous abuse of our Italian immigrants, chiefly by their own countrymen, has long called for reform, and now a Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants, lately incorporated under the laws of this State, is to undertake this work. An agent of the society will be ready at the Barge Office to warn the newcomers of the worst impositions before them, and to direct them to suitable lodging places. As soon as its resources will permit, the society means to have its own lodging-houses. To attain its highest usefulness, the society must organize an employment bureau, and supplant the "padroni" and "banchieri," who now render their compatriots a real service, but at a most extortionate price. It is doubtful if the padrone system can be abolished, or, even, that it should be abolished. Somebody must manage the affairs of these immigrants, helpless among new conditions, and it is probable that effort could better be directed towards securing an honest class of "padroni" under the direction of the society, than in organizing an impersonal employment agency, which the Italians would not understand and would probably distrust. The plan of encouraging the newcomers to go to the country and become farm laborers or farmers is an admirable one. This is the natural calling of most of them. Whether that eminently sociable race can stand the loneliness of an American farming community is another question. In Italy, it will be remembered, the villages are closely built, and offer many civic attractions. The laborers in the fields have the privilege of swarming together every evening in the town, and it is doubtful if they will forego that privilege lightly. Such problems, however, the society will handle one at a time as its work broadens. Meanwhile it has an immediate task of staving off the extortioners that beset the Italian as he lands.

It is not surprising or discouraging that there should have been a disorderly element at the mass meeting in Cooper Union last week, under the auspices of the Committee of Conciliation of the Civic Federation, which hissed those representatives of labor who expressed conservative views, and which called for a policy of force, instead of one of arbitration. The really significant and important feature of the gathering is that leaders of so much influence with workingmen as President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor and John Mitchell, President of the United Mine Workers, were ready to take their stand openly and strongly in favor of moderate measures. What the National Committee on Conciliation propose in their report is, that a board or commission shall be established, the scope of whose work shall be to promote the conviction in the public mind that such industrial disturbances as strikes or lockouts can and should be avoided; that the only sure way of avoiding them is through full and frank conferences between employers and workingmen, to reach an agreement as to terms; that, while organizations to consider such questions are valuable and to be utilized, the true and safe policy is conference and agreement between employers and workmen covering as large a constituency as possible; and that "the surest way to keep organizations of employers and workmen free from unwise and injurious action is through cooperation, and the mutual education and respect which will inevitably follow from it." The proposed board or commission is to be composed of the most competent persons available, "selected from em-

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ployers and employees of judgment, experience, and reliability," and it will be expected to make known to workmen and employers that its counsel and aid will be available, if desired, in securing coöperation, mutual understanding, and agreement.

An example of voluntary arbitration which has proved successful is reported from Boston. There was a disagreement between the master-builders and an association of bricklayers regarding the wages basis upon which the arrangements for the year's work should be made. Both parties were ready to submit the issue to Mr. Charles Francis Adams, 2d, who has large interests in real estate and building enterprises, and thus is exceptionally well qualified to pass upon the matter intelligently and impartially. His decision was in favor of the men, to the extent that he held they ought to have an advance of five cents an hour, and it was cheerfully accepted by the master-builders, as apparently a contrary one would have been by the bricklayers. A noteworthy feature of the matter is that Massachusetts maintains a State Board of Arbitration, but that neither side to the controversy thought of having recourse to it. Neither employers nor employed seem to take kindly to the idea of compulsion in the settlement of disputes—even if it be carried no further than the picking out of the men to whom they must submit their case.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach has earned the respect of his opponents, and to a large degree the admiration of distant observers, by the intrepidity of his course in reference to the export tax on coal. Hardly anything could have been advanced by a Chancellor of the Exchequer so likely to provoke anger and determined resistance on the part of both labor and capital. The Chancellor has met the opposition, both in and out of Parliament, as a man who knows his ground, and who, while willing to be convinced by reason, is not willing to yield to pressure. Most of all is he to be praised for plainly telling his own party in the House of Commons that, since they placed upon England the financial burden of the war in South Africa, they must now put their hands in their pockets and pay their fair share of it, and not push it all upon posterity in the form of an increased national debt. He has extended this admonition to those statesmen of the Liberal party who have been so fierce for war. He has said to them, and to all who have attacked his policy, that nothing could be more agreeable to himself as an individual than to resign the cares of the British Exchequer and to commit to other hands the task of balancing the budget, but that, while that task is his, he must have the coal tax, and the sugar tax without any protectionism in it.

Incidentally the discussion of the export tax on coal has thrown some light on the question of American competition in the markets of Europe. Not much stress was laid upon this danger by the opponents of the tax. They had much to say about German competition in Continental markets. Some of the remonstrants pointed to future competition from America, when the cost of winning the coal in Great Britain should be still further enhanced by the increasing depth of mines; and it was affirmed, truly enough, that in South America, and in any markets where the cost and time of transportation are about equal for the two countries, the advantage of the United States would be increased by the amount of the export tax. But it was not contended that American coal could compete dangerously with English at present in the Mediterranean ports, or in those of the Baltic and North Seas, even with a shilling per ton export duty on the latter.

In spite of the urgent whip for the division on the coal tax in the House of Commons, the theory that the British Government is riding for a fall receives some confirmation from its introduction of a bill to revolutionize the whole system of primary education. There is scarcely any other domestic question that would arouse such strong feeling, or would cause such cleavage in the ranks of those who support the present policy in South Africa. In 1896 the Government of the day had to drop its Education Bill like a hot potato, mainly because of vigorous opposition from its own side, and the Education Act of 1897 was pulled through only by the ingenious use of a parliamentary device that limited discussion in committee. In neither of these years was any attempt made to deal with more than one section of the subject, but the controversy was of the keenest. The measure now introduced will be interpreted as a deliberate endeavor to overthrow the school-board system, and will accordingly be the signal for the beating of the drum ecclesiastic by Nonconformists from one end of the country to the other. It will bring to a head the dissatisfaction caused by the recent Cockerton decision, which makes it impossible for the larger board schools to continue the work which they have been doing for several years in supplementing their elementary teaching by technical courses.

The obvious delight of the Irish at having one of their newspapers seized by the Government for insulting the King indicates the nature of the mistake made by the Ministry. They have furnished the wind to fly this new Irish kite, which, if they had let it alone, would have fallen helplessly to the ground. As it is, they have taken the infallible means of sending the scandalous attack upon King Edward reverberating around the world, at the same time that they have given the *Irish People* an advertisement of the highest value. But there is, in the incident, a plain revelation of the drift to excessive adulation of the throne now observable in England, as also in Germany. It is, as Mr. Goldwin Smith has pointed out, a necessary accompaniment of the lurch away from Liberalism and into Imperialism. Court ceremonial is made unprecedentedly gorgeous; the person of the monarch becomes sacrosanct; *lèse-majesté* is regarded as a kind of blacker atheism. No one supposes that the King himself prompted the seizure of the *Irish People*. Very likely he, as a man, would have smiled at it as "only pretty Fanny's way," and thrown it into the waste-basket. But his Ministers felt that the awful reverence due him as a sovereign could not be broken through thus ruthlessly without impairing the recovered conception of divine-right royalty, now put into such deliberate play to impress the imagination of the people, and make them vote supplies in a becoming spirit of docility.

Those expatriated Russians, the Doukhobors, who to the number of 8,000 have settled during the past two or three years in the Canadian Northwest, do not find such perfect liberty in the country of their adoption as they had hoped. As is well known, the Doukhobors are a sect of Christians who take their New Testament with inconvenient literalness. They object to the individual ownership of land, for example, yet the Canadian Government comes along and insists, according to law, upon registering their lands by the owner's name. But there is no one owner, protested the Russians; register it in common. Officialdom, however, saw nothing of that kind written in the statute, and besought the primitive Christians to be "sensible" and register their holdings; while the primitive Christians complained that officialdom was trying to make them false to faith and conscience. There is also trouble about state control of marriage, and official records of births and deaths; all these things the Doukhobors wish to keep themselves as a part of their religion. They have issued a simple-minded "address to all nations," asking if there is anywhere a "country where we should be tolerated, and where we could make a living without being obliged to break the demands of our conscience and of the truth." These Russians are excellent colonists, yet the Canadian authorities are puzzled what to do with them.

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THE "COMMUNITY OF INTEREST."

The course of events in the stock market since the beginning of the present year has been without precedent in this country or in any other. Its chief feature and impelling cause, called the "community of interest," was a new thing in the world of finance, and was well calculated to excite the public imagination. For a quarter of a century public opinion had squared itself by the anti-pooling clause of the Interstate Commerce Act, and all the powers of Government had been used to enforce it. Laws to prevent the consolidation of railroads and to keep competition alive had been passed by the State Legislatures; and Railroad Commissions had been appointed to correct abuses and in some cases to regulate railroad charges. The capitalists controlling the roads had finally hit upon a method of stifling competition in spite of the Interstate Commerce Law and of the Anti-Consolidation Acts. By virtue of the "community of interest" plan, certain groups of capitalists controlling a particular line of transportation bought a preponderating share of the stock in a competing line, or a share sufficiently large to acquire a representation in the direction of the competing line. Thus the Pennsylvania interests came into possession of a large part of the Baltimore and Ohio.

The execution of this plan necessitated large purchases of shares in the open market, and rapid advance in prices, which stimulated buying by the public. This in turn stimulated the capitalists to continue the operation, by teaching them that there were plenty of people to take the property off their hands in case of need. One such case was the attempt of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific group to secure the Milwaukee and St. Paul also. They ran the price up to an astonishing figure, but failed to get the control, yet other people were quite willing to take the stock off their hands, at a net profit to them. The "community of interest" idea had taken possession of the public mind as a limitless source of wealth. About the same time the great steel combination was formed, with its billion and a half of capital, a "community of interest" on a still grander scale, and was soon followed by numerous smaller ones which are yet in embryo. The movement continued until the wisest men in the financial world were baffled, and the silliest ones said that this was the greatest country in the universe, and that stocks were cheap at the highest prices that had ever been conceived.

There came a time, however, when two communities of interest impinged against each other. The Great Northern and Northern Pacific community, having failed to get control of St. Paul, turned its attention to Burlington and Quincy—a property which lay principally in what the Union Pacific community considered its territory. Whether any steps were taken by the former group to conciliate the latter before acquiring the Burlington, or whether any remonstrances were made by the latter to the former, is not known. It is certain that the Union Pacific community considered itself encroached upon by its Northern neighbor, and decided to fight. It sought to prevent the purchase of Burlington by acquiring control of the Northern Pacific and paralyzing the would-be purchasers. It bought Northern Pacific shares, both at private sale and in open market, till the price reached a giddy height, and then found that the stock was cornered. The speculating public had joined in the tumult.

Private adventurers, who knew not the cause of the up-rush, had "sold short," because they knew that the price was artificial, and must come down some time. In a general way they were right, but they had made a mistake as to the time when. Stocks sold on the Exchange to-day are deliverable to-morrow, unless there is a special agreement to the contrary. The large buyers of Northern Pacific, those who were buying to prevent the Burlington deal, wanted the stock itself, and not a mere difference between the quotations of to-day and yesterday. The sellers did not have it. So the price for immediate delivery soared to $1,000 per share, many people were ruined, and one of the worst panics on the Stock Exchange that the present generation has witnessed was precipitated. The name of the speculators involved is legion. They are found in all parts of the country, and in all walks of life. They are men and women who have been tempted to gamble by the spectacle of the great advance in stocks which has attended the rise and progress of the "community of interest" idea in railroad management, and the consolidation of competing industries generally.

The community of interest that was to produce such harmony in the industrial and financial world has led to a battle of giants. The field is strewn with dead and wounded, and the question involuntarily arises:

> "Can such things be,
> And overcome us like a summer cloud,
> Without our special wonder?"

The country, prosperous though it be, is full of discontent with the arrogance of men who control millions, and who combine to-day and fight to-morrow, regardless of the rights and interests of the masses. There is a substratum of socialism in every community, which demands municipal ownership of "public utilities." It wants street railroads and gas and electric-lighting works and telephones to be owned by the cities, and administered in the interest of the consumer. It will very likely want country trolley lines to be owned by the State and operated in competition with the steam railroads. It may demand the taking of coal and iron mines and oil wells under the law of eminent domain. It may impose killing taxes on what it conceives to be dangerous monopolies. It may meet the "community of interest" idea of railroad management with more stringent legislation by Congress and the Legislatures than any we have yet had. It is only a rumbling force now, but it is capable of doing vast mischief, both to itself and to those whom it conceives to be inimical to it. Nothing is better calculated to awaken this slumbering giant than such spectacles as we have had in Wall Street the past few days.

WALL STREET AND ITS "CORNER."

The recent "corner" in Northern Pacific appears to have come about without any design on the part of the men who actually caused it. It was not their intention to put the sellers of the stock in a position where they could not deliver it. On the contrary, they were much disappointed when they found that the stock was cornered. They were seeking control of the road, not a profit in a stock gamble. Other operators took advantage of it, but even these men did not produce the corner. They "sized up" the situation to their own profit, but the same result would have come a little later even if they had not existed. So there is no room for legal proceedings to test the validity of contracts made in such a market. The general rule of law in regard to corners is that if a combination has been formed with the object of inducing others to "sell short," and compelling them to buy in the property at a price fixed by the combination, the transaction is fraudulent; and, since fraud vitiates everything, the contract is void. It has been held by the courts also that the act of cornering the market for wheat or other necessaries of life, even where there is no particular intention to induce the selling of the commodity by persons who must buy it of the corners, is against public policy, and that contracts made in pursuance of that aim are illegal. No stock exchange, so far as we are aware, makes a distinction between sales in a cornered market and sales of the ordinary kind. The London Exchange, however, authorizes the annulment of bargains in cases of "fraud or wilful misrepresentation." The penalty for "obvious fraud" in the New York Exchange is the expulsion of the guilty member and the escheat of his membership to the Exchange.

It was to be expected that an incident such as the Northern Pacific corner, in which speculators who had sold what they did not own were suddenly confronted with bankruptcy, should have revived the familiar moralizing over the

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evils of "bear" speculation. The truth is, the "bear" on stocks enjoys little favor in the public mind—largely because depression of markets is itself unpopular, but partly also because the nature of the "bear" operation is, in the public's view, mysterious, and hence suspicious. Yet, when the whole framework of speculation is analyzed, there is something to say in behalf of the unbefriended "bear." It is monstrous, say the newspaper critics, who, for one reason or another, are usually "bulls," that a speculator should sell stocks which he does not own. If he pledges future delivery under such conditions, he is justly served when he finds, on settlement-day, that the stocks cannot be obtained. No reasoning could be more sound. But we observe a singular lack, among the same moralists, of denunciation of speculators who buy stocks which they cannot pay for, and who are occasionally punished by being caught in a market where they cannot raise the money.

The comparative immorality of the two transactions we shall leave to doctors in ethics. As regards the mischief done to the outside public by one or the other operation, we think that honors are fairly easy; for if the professional "bear" on occasion undermines credit and tempts the public to sell its stocks for less than value, it is notoriously the work of the professional "bull" to tempt the public to buy worthless properties, or to buy at fictitious prices. This aspect of the matter, however, is not the most important. Unscrupulous as the "bear" operator often is, recklessly as he uses his opportunities, and unpleasant as is the work in which he engages, it none the less remains true that, with Stock Exchange speculation what it is to-day, the active presence of the "bear" is requisite to safety. Speculators for the rise, using borrowed money, will always exist. If the outside public runs madly at their heels, and if, as occurred in the recent market, larger capitalists do not dare to part with their own stock purchases, there is no strong interest left to restrain extravagant excesses except the "bear" operator. Nor is this all. Selling as he does for the purpose of buying in at lower prices, the "bear" not only is a powerful restraint on factitious rise in values, but is the strongest kind of safeguard when the advance, as is usual, culminates in a wild collapse. All students of financial history know that the appalling heights to which prices rose, in the French and English speculation of 1720, were due to the fact that, while "bull operations" on borrowed money were in enormous favor, there was no "bear selling" to offset them. Nor, by consequence, was there any "bear buying" to sustain the market when the inevitable crash arrived. The result was the bankruptcy of two communities.

It is a rather curious fact that, in the business community, a corner in stocks is looked upon usually as more disreputable than a corner in commodities. Speculators who forestall a necessary of life, as Hutchinson twice did in our times on the American wheat market, as young Leiter attempted unsuccessfully to do in 1898, and as another aspiring operator now asserts his ability to do in the corn market at Chicago, come in for a round share of popular abuse, which is very properly bestowed; but they hardly suffer the personal odium among their associates which is apt to attend a corner manipulator on the Stock Exchange. We imagine that this difference in view arises largely from the methods employed in the two cases. In the case of a corner in commodities, the speculator is, as a rule, merely a very successful gambler on production and consumption. A corner in stocks, on the other hand, has too often been tainted with knavery.

Measured by the actual wrong done by the one sort of corner and the other, the balance of ill-repute should doubtless be meted out to the operator in commodities. Stocks, to begin with, are not necessaries. Nothing compels any man to contract for the sale of securities which he does not own. But with commodities some one must do this. Trade, as at present constituted, is largely and necessarily made up of contracts of this sort. Neither the spinner, nor the miller, nor the manufacturer can safely map out his business for the year until somebody in touch with the markets has contracted to deliver to him, at a future date, certain quantities of cotton or grain or iron which are not yet produced. In the stock market this is not true, or at least is true to a very limited extent. Recent events have shown that sales by a foreign security-holder on this market involve the borrowing of the stock by his New York agent for delivery, until the European stock arrives by steamer. This is a perfectly legitimate operation; it is, indeed, the only way in which instant sales from one market to another can be made. But such transactions are small compared with sales of stock which the seller does not own, and which he expects to acquire at lower prices. Not very much sympathy, we presume, will be tendered to him in a cornered market.

The gravest objection to a corner in securities, aside from any disreputable practices incidental to it, is the disturbance which it causes in the entire situation. Itself an abnormal element in the markets, it dislocates with the utmost violence the rest of the financial system. A commercial panic always places the credit and solvency of a part of the community at the mercy of accident; a corner places it in the hands of an individual, and usually of an unscrupulous individual. In a large degree, such a person has the financial situation in his control. He may, as the ingenious Mr. Jay Gould once did, invite the unhappy "shorts" to his office, and inform them, after the fashion of kindly freebooters in the days of more open plunder, that he would only ask for a sight of their cash accounts, in order to assess the ransom according to their means. He may drive them into actual bankruptcy, with the consequent shaking of affiliated houses. But this he will hardly do, for the obvious reason that a bankrupt will not pay the penalty, and that the courts to which he appeals will look much askance at contracts held by manipulators of a corner.

We are not sure that the results of last week's corner, mischievous as they have been in some regards, may not be salutary in their influence on the public. Something was needed to check the stock-jobbing mania, which was taking possession of the entire community, and it is quite as well, perhaps, that the check should be administered by open evidence that many prevailing values were factitious, and that Stock Exchange sharp practice was a powerful factor in the "boom." The recent wreck of prices is correctly described in Wall Street as the most violent sustained by the stock market since the "Venezuela panic" of December 20, 1895. It is fortunate for the financial situation generally that underlying conditions are not what they were in that unlucky week; that the currency is sound, the nation's wealth vastly increased, and the industrial position wholly in our favor.

BOUNTIES AND SUBSIDIES.

Mr. Charles M. Schwab, President of the United States Steel Company, gave testimony before the Industrial Commission at Washington on Saturday in a spirit of frankness which is much to be commended. He also approved himself a man of engaging personality and sense of humor. There were some things connected with his company that he declined to talk about, and some things that he professed to be ignorant of, but he made a favorable impression as a witness, whatever opinions may be held concerning the corporation over which he presides. Before his elevation to the conspicuous place which he now holds, he had been, next to Mr. Carnegie, the head of the Carnegie Steel Company. He began as a laborer in that great establishment, and rose to his present position by force of genius as a steel manufacturer; he is still a young man.

Asked by Professor Jenks to explain how the United States Steel Company came to be formed, Mr. Schwab (according to the newspaper reports of his testimony) said:

"That is a private matter, and I am not authorized to speak about it here. Still, I shall ask about this when I have time, after I return to my office in New York, and

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if there is no objection to my discussing this matter for the edification of the public, I will submit a statement concerning it to the Commission."

This was a very proper answer under the circumstances. In the absence of more direct information, we may advert to facts pertinent to the investigation, which were widely published in the month of February last, when the negotiations for the consolidation of the steel interests were in progress. It was then said, and not denied, that the National Tube Company, a corporation with a capital of $80,000,000, which had been financed by the house of J. P. Morgan & Co., was threatened with competition by the Carnegie Steel Co., which had bought land and laid out a scheme for tube works at Conneaut, O., sufficient to duplicate the production of the Tube Company, and that the movement to absorb the Carnegie Company was thus forced upon Mr. Morgan against his wishes. If the Tube Company was to be preserved on the basis of its existing capitalization, the interference of the Carnegie Company must be neutralized. This could be done only by buying out Mr. Carnegie. In order to buy him out, a satisfactory form of security must be produced, or a sum of money must be advanced so gigantic in amount that only the strongest Governments could think of raising it. The only way to create security for $250,000,000 was to combine all the steel interests, and since all of them were exposed equally with the Tube Company to the possible competition of the Carnegie Company, a strong motive for consolidation existed. These facts were freely commented on by the street and in the press at the time. We presume that, if Mr. Schwab gets permission to enter upon this line of narrative, the main facts will turn out to be such as we have indicated.

More important, however, is Mr. Schwab's statement of the present position and prospects of his company. He considers it not over-capitalized. On the contrary, he thinks that the assets have been undervalued. The company owns iron-ore beds that will yield five hundred million tons. These are 80 per cent. of the ore deposits in the Northwestern field, and at the present rate of consumption they will be exhausted in sixty years. It owns sixty thousand acres of coking coal, all there is in the Connellsville district, and this will be exhausted in thirty years. He might have added that this will be an unhappy world when that time comes. These assets, in Mr. Schwab's opinion, are placed at a low valuation in the inventory.

The frankness of Mr. Schwab's testimony comes out most strikingly in his discussion of the tariff question and ship subsidies. He acknowledges that American manufacturers of iron and steel sell at lower prices to foreigners than to consumers at home, but says that they do so in order to keep their men employed in dull times. There is no need, in his opinion, of a tariff on those classes of steel and iron manufactures in which the cost of labor is not a heavy item, such as billets and rails; but in the lighter forms, such as wire, where labor is the heaviest item of production, the present tariff is necessary in order to give labor its adequate reward. All of which, we presume, Mr. Babcock of Wisconsin will roll as a sweet morsel under his tongue.

If Mr. Schwab sells steel to foreigners at less than cost, or at less than he sells in the home market, of course the American public pay the difference. Now the frankest part of his statement is that, if the policy of ship-subsidies were adopted, he could do still more of this kind of business. We labor under a disadvantage now, he says, because it costs more to carry a pound of steel from Pittsburgh to Europe than it does to produce the steel at Pittsburgh. It needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us that, if the American people will pay the freight, we can sell steel to Europe at even lower rates than we do now.

Mr. Schwab has not advanced the Frye Subsidy Bill much, we think, by his explanations of the steel situation at home and abroad, but this is only in line with the course of recent events. On top of the purchase of the Leyland Steamship Line, comes the official announcement of the formation of a Shipyard Trust. Yet Senator Frye was reported only week before last as being busily engaged in "remodelling" the Ship-Subsidy Bill! Poor man, he will have a hard time of it. No sooner does he get his bill modelled so as to prevent a monopoly on the water from taking advantage of it, than a monopoly on land suddenly appears to fright him. If both those who go down to the sea in ships and those who build them are to make a great display of wealth and prosperity, and, above all, organize themselves into Trusts, how can the beggars' appeal be again made to the national Treasury?

The truth is, that the shipping interests are doing precisely what the opponents of last winter's Subsidy Bill said they would do. How loudly Hanna and Grosvenor sniffed at the notion that the shipyards would combine. Impossible! Why, they are too widely scattered, too unlike, do kinds of work too different ever to have a community of interest. But here is the official prospectus of the Trust pointing out these supposed objections as the real arguments for combining, since "each concern will build that for which it is best fitted and equipped, or that which its character, location, and labor can accomplish most economically." The Trust takes in the principal ship-building plants of both the Atlantic and Pacific Coasts, with the exception of the Cramps, who are, however, again reported as on the point of concluding a sort of international Trust in connection with the Vickers-Maxim Company of England. And these constituent corporations, whose agents have repeatedly told Congress that they must have a subsidy or perish, now invite the public to subscribe to their stock on the basis of declared profits of more than 10 per cent. on orders already on hand!

In every rational mind, this must mark the end of the ship-subsidy agitation. Those who took part in it honestly will blush at the way they were duped; those who were not duped, but would be dupers, will see that the game is up. It looks, in fact, as if it was only a kind of heroic self-restraint which prevented the shipping interests from making a business combination six months ago. The thing was in the air then. Both its solid advantages and its speculative opportunities were clearly present to the minds of the capitalists concerned. But the chance of getting a share of that $9,000,000 a year subsidy induced them to wait. One can imagine what a tempting bait in a Trust prospectus would be a twenty-years' contract with the Government. But the companies can wait no longer. A subsidy seems now too remote and uncertain a joy to be preferred to a present and assured happiness. So the rôle of Lazarus begging for subsidy crumbs is dropped for that of Dives with $65,000,000 capital stock, to $40,000,000 of which the public is invited to subscribe at par.

QUESTIONS ABOUT CUBA.

Promptly on his return to Havana, Gen. Wood announced his purpose to do everything in his power to secure a reduction of our tariff on Cuban sugar and tobacco. To the editor of the *Diario de la Marina*, for example, he said, and authorized the publication of his utterances, that he considered it his principal mission in the future to secure such customs favors for Cuban planters, and that, from now on, he would exert every effort to convince the American Government that it was both expedient and necessary to lower the rates on sugar and tobacco imported from Cuba. The *Diario* is an established Spanish newspaper, and especially represents the business elements of the island. Its editor was delighted with Gen. Wood's frank talk, and declared that it would go far towards solving the political questions now agitating Cuba.

But will it? Is there any likelihood that Columbus Wood will balance the egg in the easy fashion proposed? Even if he "convinces" the Administration, and if the President keeps his promise to the Cubans and advises Congress to accept a reciprocity treaty with Cuba, will the obstinate old protectionist horse

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consent to drink when thus wheedled down to the water? We think it very doubtful. So must any one who takes a look at the formidable forces arrayed against the optimistic Wood. On his side, to be sure, he has a large exporting interest in this country. The manufacturers of boots and shoes and iron and steel and cotton and machinery and agricultural implements, as well as the exporters of flour and provisions, would be glad to have absolute free trade with Cuba. A large measure of reciprocity they would support heartily. But who would be bitterly against it? The beet-sugar manufacturers, with more than $20,000,000 already invested in their business; the cane-sugar growers, who regard the tariff on sugar as expressly designed for their protection against Cuba; above all, the embattled tobacco-farmers of Connecticut. The latter furious warriors succeeded in frightening the President out of his "plain duty" to let in Porto Rican tobacco free, and declared at the time that with them it was a case of *obsta principiis*. They did not so much mind the competition of Porto Rican tobacco, but they wanted no precedent set to plague them hereafter in the matter of Cuban tobacco. And they will know the reason why before they consent to see the Connecticut Valley made desolate by importations from the Vuelta Abajo.

We conclude, therefore, that the most Gen. Wood can accomplish will be to give a fresh twist to that tariff sword which is already plunged into the vitals of the Republican party. Between its two powerful and antagonistic factions a fierce struggle for supremacy is clearly coming. The interests which have been protected, but have confessedly outgrown the possibility of benefit from protection, are clamorous for a modification of those tariff laws which now prevent the extension of American trade. But the sugar and tobacco Republicans look upon all that with loathing. Those utterly selfish manufacturers, to wish to rob the unselfish sugar-grower and tobacco-farmer of his sole protection against a designing world! Evidently, in all this Cuba is but a minor incident, a pawn on the chess-board. She may precipitate an irrepressible conflict within the Republican party, but she will not be the chief object of interest to the combatants.

Another curious and two-faced question about Cuba is involved in an assurance given to the visiting Cubans by Secretary Root. According to their report to the Convention in Havana, he told them that the Platt amendment would not prevent a Cuban Government from sending diplomatic representatives to other countries. If this was intended as anything more than a hint that there would be just so many more offices to be filled by "good" Cubans, it would be necessary to inquire what would be involved in diplomatic relations between Cuba and any foreign Power. The matter is always reciprocal. Cuban ministers to Europe would not be received unless Europeans thought it worth while to send ministers to Cuba. But would they? What would be gained? Could Cuba, under the Platt amendment, make a treaty with Spain or France? Not unless the United States assented. Could she float a loan in London? Not without American consent. Would it be Cuba to whom foreign nations would look for protection to the lives and property of their citizens resident in the island? No, under the Platt amendment, it would be the United States. Then is it not plain to you, my children, that other countries would laugh at the idea of establishing diplomatic relations with Cuba when all the real business was to be transacted at Washington?

We cannot, indeed, listen to all the solemn absurdities talked by both Cuban and American officials, without asking the question of Don Basil in the "Barber of Seville": "Qui trompe-t-on ici?" Who is the deceiver and who is the dupe? As a matter of fact, we do not suppose that either party is greatly deceived. The Cubans expect annexation. They know that any nominal independence they may be given for a time will be only a toy for them to play with until Nurse Hanna gets ready to take it away. In Washington the real expectation is that Cuba will be annexed. Not just yet. Let us first have the decision of the Supreme Court. Let us wait until enough Cuban plantations are bought up by Americans to make it really our "own" sugar and tobacco which we admit duty-free. But of ultimate annexation, when the Cuban pineapple is ripe for picking, we suppose no officer of the Government, from the President down, has the slightest doubt. Then why do they talk such grave nonsense about the Platt amendment being the bulwark of Cuban independence?

SCHOLARSHIP "IN A GREAT REPUBLIC"—AND ELSEWHERE.

In his argument on April 30 before the Boston Home Market Club in favor of Harvard's bestowing an honorary degree on President McKinley, Senator Hoar might have based his plea on the theory that eminence of any kind should be regarded as a sufficient qualification for such a distinction, and proceeded to show, as, of course, he would have had no difficulty in doing, that President McKinley would meet this requirement. He took, however, the indefensible course of accepting the position that the honor should be reserved for scholars, and then twisting the word "scholar" out of all recognition in the attempt to make it fit the particular instance in which he is interested. His plea is reported as follows:

"I see that some worthy gentlemen, some highly excited gentlemen, just now are denying to President McKinley the right to the title of scholar. Perhaps I do not know exactly what makes a scholar. William McKinley, before he was President, stated to the American people, with a beauty and precision not equalled in that discussion since the time of Hamilton, the great argument for the doctrine of the great economic school which Hamilton founded. He conducted that debate, not before a shouting rabble, not before angry and bitter zealots, but before the business men of America, eager to promote the interest of American trade and manufactures, and before the skilled workmen of America, eager to increase their day's wages. And he convinced the court he addressed. If he were right, so much the sounder his judgment. If he were wrong, the greater his power as an orator and an advocate.

"When was it heard before that statesmanship and oratory were not the qualities of scholarship in a great republic? I suppose these gentlemen would deny the title of scholar to Demosthenes, and give it only to some pedant who discovered that Demosthenes once put the accent on the wrong syllable. I suppose they would deny the title of scholar to Chatham, because of his great orations, matchless in the history of civil liberty, and assign it to him because he read Thucydides in the original. I suppose they would have denied the title of scholar to Cæsar and Gen. Grant, if Cæsar had died before he wrote his Commentaries, or Grant before he completed his Memoirs. I suppose they would have denied the honors of scholarship to Patrick Henry, while they would bestow them on some professor of elocution who teaches the stammering schoolboy to repeat his periods."

Now if we seek an interpretation of "scholarship" that will be generally accepted, irrespective of national limitations, we discover that popular usage sets the qualifications of scholarship higher or lower according to the stage of cultivation reached by the person speaking. For instance, an old lady in one of the poorest districts of a large city once said, in our hearing, "I'm not much of a scholar: I can read, but I can't write." Here we touch a stratum in which the possession of even an elementary education is a distinction. At another time we heard a young man, a clerk in a dry-goods store, described as "quite a scholar" on the ground that he could write shorthand. This is a stage higher; the ability to read and to write longhand being regarded as a common acquisition, and an extra of any quality being accepted as a mark of scholarship. So we might trace the progress of the word, from level to level, up to the narrowly specialized signification which is attached to it by classical students. Learning alone, however wide and deep, is not a sufficient passport to this inner circle. George Grote, for example, though one of the greatest historians of ancient Greece, would not be called a Greek scholar. There is nothing necessarily snobbish in this limitation. It implies no depreciation of the genius or the erudition of those to whom the name is denied: it is simply the specialization of a common word into a technical term, for convenience' sake, among a certain section of the academic world.

In spite of this elasticity in meaning, there need be no great difficulty in agreeing upon a working definition. If it is said that no one but a scholar should be admitted to the honorary degrees of a university, the word will be understood by the majority of educated men in the sense given to it by the Century Dictionary: "A learned man; one having great knowledge of literature or philology;

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an erudite person; specifically, a man or woman of letters." This is surely as liberal a meaning as can be desired. Now, what would Senator Hoar substitute for this established conception? In the first of the two paragraphs quoted from his speech, he vindicates his use of the word on the ground that the eminent man for whom he claims it was brilliantly successful in conducting a great economic argument before the majority—a majority which was at the same time the most intelligent section—of a whole nation. "He convinced the court he addressed"; therein did he satisfy the crowning test. The question whether his argument was a sound one or not does not affect his title to scholarship; except that, perhaps, the presumption is all the more in his favor if it was unsound. "If he were wrong, the greater his power as an orator and an advocate." For it is this "power as an orator and an advocate," according to Senator Hoar, that is the essential thing. He proceeds to emphasize this truth and scatter all objectors by asking, "When was it heard before that statesmanship and oratory were not the qualities of scholarship?"—we omit "in a great republic," as this waving of the Stars and Stripes does not really affect the question in the least. The only possible answer is the brief and simple one, "Always." Statesmanship and oratory have been recognized in every generation, in the history of civilized peoples at least, as deserving respect and admiration, but previously to this banquet of the Home Market Club they have never been regarded as "the qualities of scholarship."

The citation of Demosthenes, Chatham, Cæsar, General Grant, and Patrick Henry as types of the statesman-orator-scholar, ancient and modern, is helpful as still further elucidating Senator Hoar's opinion, but can hardly be said to strengthen his position. It is surprising that among Greek orators and advocates he should light particularly upon Demosthenes. One would have thought that Cleon would have better suited his turn. If skill in addressing arguments to the majority of one's fellow-citizens, and success in influencing their political action, carry a man far up the ladder of scholarship, Cleon's seat must certainly be near the top. As far as Chatham is concerned, it is obvious that his study of literature made him a scholar, and that his scholarship, together with the mental discipline acquired in the process of gaining it, gave a higher and more abiding value to his speeches than they would otherwise have possessed. Cæsar, one of the finest examples of an all-round genius that any country ever produced, would not have left us without evidence of his scholarship if he had never published the dispatches of his campaigns against the Helvetii and the Nervii; but he certainly did not owe his reputation in that respect to his successes either in the field or in the forum.

The simple fact is, that a statesman and orator may or may not be a scholar, just as a railroad president, or a cotton-manufacturer, or a popular preacher may or may not be a scholar. A man cannot control the political forces of his country or sway the emotions and convictions of large audiences without possessing exceptional gifts; but there is no necessary connection between these and the qualities which, according to the best usage, are known as scholarly. No one would hesitate, for example, to allow to Gladstone the three-fold title of statesman, orator, and scholar; but his claim to scholarship would have been equally recognized if he had never entered Parliament or addressed a public meeting. An interesting comparison is suggested by the career of two eminent men who have represented Birmingham in the House of Commons. Although the oratory of John Bright was undoubtedly of a nobler type than the eloquence of Joseph Chamberlain, the latter has certainly shown the more brilliant qualities as a debater, and has had the greater influence both upon the course of legislation in the United Kingdom and upon the history of the whole British Empire. But if the speech given by John Bright at the opening of the Birmingham Free Library, in 1882, is set by the side of that in which Joseph Chamberlain recently expounded the ideals of the new university in the same city, no reader can be unconscious of a remarkable difference in the level of thought and culture. Neither of these eminent men went through an academic course, but it is manifest that the elder possessed a far greater share than the younger of the tone and temper of the true scholar.

"But why be so pedantically particular," some one will ask, "about the mere use of a word? If a speaker pleases to employ a term in a novel sense, what reason is there for objecting, at any rate as long as he tells you himself what meaning he attaches to it? After all, a word is only a kind of algebraic symbol, and may be made to signify anything that public opinion desires." The mischief is, however, that when an attempt is made to put a new meaning upon a familiar word, it is always proposed, consciously or unconsciously, to retain for it whatever honorable implications and associations may have grown up with the old meaning. And there is a further reason still why Senator Hoar's attempted transformation of the idea of scholarship should not be suffered to pass unchallenged. It illustrates a tendency which is scarcely less dangerous than indifference to the sanctity of language. This tendency is particularly indicated in a later sentence of the same speech, a sentence which, in the hands of hostile critics, might easily be made the text for a scathing arraignment of American ideals: "Fellow-citizens, it is the bee that fills the hive with honey that deserves the degree of A.B., and not the drone, who does nothing but eat and buzz, which tries to sting but cannot even sting." That such a sentiment was received with applause in Boston is an incident that might well exhilarate any malicious person who wished to prove that the life of this country was hopelessly materialistic. It is impossible to extract any meaning from this sentence unless it be taken to express the opinion that the meditation of the student and philosopher is idle and unserviceable, and that the only man who is profitable to the community is he who is visibly increasing such national resources as can be quoted on the Stock Exchange; indeed, that the latter not only deserves the highest honor as a citizen, but is the most fitting to receive that academic recognition which is universally interpreted as an evidence of education and culture. It was only to be expected, after the reported professorial eulogy of Rockefeller as Shakspere's superior, that some day or other we should come to this; but it is nevertheless surprising that the new standard should have gained so easy a conquest over the traditions of Boston.

GIOSUÈ CARDUCCI.

FLORENCE, April 21, 1901.

A delightful little volume, 'Reminiscences and Critical Essays,' by Giuseppe Chiarini, Carducci's early friend and fellow-student, now one of the permanent heads of public instruction in Italy, well known for his prose writings and poems—one of the few Italians who have thoroughly studied and appreciated English literature and English poets (the only living Italian, now that Nencioni is gone, of whom this can be said)—is published at Bologna for the students' commemoration of the beloved master's fortieth anniversary as teacher and professor. The 370 pages contain a preface, a review of the "Levia Gravia," chapters on Italian critics and the first "Odi Barbare," on the poems that mark the transition from the first to the second, on the third "Odi Barbare," and finally some eighty pages devoted to Giosuè himself—the man, the friend, the citizen, and the teacher of youth. The space that we can claim is all too small for even the choicest bits of this fascinating biography, which illuminates the meagre details that the poet was compelled by one of his publishers to furnish some years since.

"The generation to which Carducci and I belong was a fortunate one because it saw accomplished in brief space of time events that surpassed all hope. As boys, we dreamed always of a revolution and of a republic, but knew that they were dreams. . . . When Carducci, at twenty, first apostrophised the Italians as a race unworthy of their country and their forefathers, bidding them put off their boasting and fool's pride which made them the laughing-stock of the world, we applauded; but none of us dreamed that those verses were the prelude to the song of 'Italia che va in Campidoglio.' . . . The events of '48 and '49 served us, boys of thirteen and fourteen, as a practical course in love of country and in hatred for the foreigner. There lived in our hearts and memories the march through our midst of the gallant youths who volunteered as combatants for the independence of Italy, and in our ears echoed the battle-cries of Milan, of Brescia, of Venice, and of Rome. Then followed the rattle of the Austrian swords on the pavement of the Piazza of the Signoria, and the hopes of a fresh crusade seemed so vague and far off that our patriotism took refuge in literature!"

This confession is precious, as justifying Mazzini's reproach to the youth of those days, who could not or would not read the signs of the times, and see that '48 and '49, with all their faults and failures, had taught the people, who hitherto had held aloof from plots and revolutions, that they had a country to live and die for; that by fighting one and all, and all for each, they were strong enough to win. But for his teaching and acting, and the enormous power of his influence on a band of the elect and on the whole of the people, these robust intellects of feeble Tuscany, whose "holy fathers" were Dante, Petrarch, Alfieri, Foscolo, and Leopardi, might have gone on adoring their writings, invoking in their names the great fatherland of the future, a strong and glorious Italy, which should have all the virtue and none of the vices of the past; but they would never have attained or led up to even this prosaic, idealless, but *one* Italy of to-day. Their

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attitude, nevertheless, has had its influence on Italian literature from '49 to '70, and, in a modified sense, up to the present times.

"Our patriotism was so exclusive and so unilluminated that our hatred for the foreigner was extended to all foreign literature. Our love of country and of the Italian tongue was one and the same thing; who wrote with a foreign intonation or in careless style could not be a good Italian. And, as Romanticism was a foreign doctrine, and, in our opinion, an irreverence to our classical writers, we passed an *à priori* sentence on all romantic writings, as on an intellectual servitude, and, to simplify matters, dubbed all the writers who displeased us as 'Romanticists.' One only, then (now, alas! no longer with us), Nencioni, dissented, loved and read foreign literature, preferred the Romanticists to the Classicists, set the dramas of Schiller and of Goethe above the tragedies of Alfieri; admired Shakspere as much as Dante, Lamartine and Hugo even as Foscolo and Leopardi, and (it goes without saying), was a devout Manzonian."

Chiarini repeats what we already know of the poet's early life; of his father, who, though a Liberal and conspirator in '31, made him learn by heart Manzoni's 'Morale Cattolica' as a punishment, while his mother taught him to delight in Alfieri and to recite Berchet's poems. At school, he was, though undisciplined and fitful, a general favorite; his professors thought much of him, his companions adored him, even though at times, when they bored him, he was fierce. Poorer than we believed, the purchase even of a second-hand book was difficult for him. Once he became possessed of Foscolo's work. He went up-stairs "with it, on his knees, till he found his mother and made her kneel and kiss the book. Next morning, when Gargani came to fetch him, he had not finished dressing, but was declaiming 'I Sepolcri' to the delight of Gargani listening at the door. In 1853 he went to the Normal School at Pisa, from which he passed as master of rhetoric to the Ginnasio of San Miniato-al-tedesco. His father, who, to the last, remained a parish doctor, was at Pian Castagnaio when the cholera broke out in a frightful manner." Giosuè, who was there for his vacation, volunteered as nurse, and wrote to Chiarini:

"As to what you say about literary work, for the last fortnight I have abandoned it, being occupied in nursing the cholera patients, who are numerous here. As, either from fear or incapacity, proper nurses could not be found, my brother Dante and myself, with two young Sienese, volunteered, whereupon the municipality formed us with three others into a committee, putting me at the head, with instructions to compile regulations for other committees of vigilance on food, cleanliness, aid to the indigent, disinfection, burial, etc. So I, as is the duty of every good citizen, have exchanged a meditative for an active life, which, as our good Leopardi teaches, is worthier and more natural to a man than the former. So I mean to do whenever the public good demands, as hitherto I have led a meditative life because the conditions of our unhappy country have precluded an active one."

From this it appears that, even up to 1856, Carducci and his friends had taken no part in conspiracies or attempts at insurrection, which were rife all over Italy, in that year especially. To a friend who thought of going to the Normal Institute at Pisa, he wrote, dissuading him:

"You will find a chattering professor who will tire you with his citations and his dates, copied from all sorts of books which he never names. Then, with a grand air, he will tell you, without any explanations or reasoning, things which children of the second elementary schools know—things cooked and recooked by all writers on rhetoric, by all academicians in all the academies of all time. Thus you will pass three years in studying Latin literature and lose your days in learning mere dates. As for Greek literature, you will have two professors who know Greek and pass their time in heated, angry dissertations on the functions of the aorist; you will hear emphatic declamation on the genealogy of the verbs and tenses as if it were the genealogy of the Æacidæ; but of the philosophy of the divine literature of Greece, of Athens's golden age, of the causes that inspired these divine works, of the method and system of the poetry, of a comparison between Greek and Latin and Italian, nothing, nothing, nothing, because these teachers are born to decline verbs, not to think or to feel and to make others feel what is beautiful. Woe to him who dares to think in the Normal School. Of rational and moral philosophy it is useless to speak, but I warn you that you will have a fellow who swears by his master, and who, without having ever read even a translation from the Greek, will begin by abusing Greek literature and praising the Goths to the skies. You will feel an irresistible desire to murder him and run the risk of the galleys."

Just as he had settled himself in a tiny attic in Florence, working at anything that came to hand for daily bread and publishing his first 'Rime,' he was summoned home by the sudden death of his best beloved brother Dante. His father never recovered from the shock, and died ten months afterwards, leaving his mother, a younger brother, and his cousin and future wife entirely dependent on his exertions; two lire only being left in the house. "How we lived," he wrote thirty years afterwards, "I can't now tell, but the impression remains that one can exist on next to nothing."

The year of his political awakening was 1859. Victor Emanuel's speech on opening the Chambers in January sounded the war cry, and Carducci's first political poem was addressed to the King. Alas, with that helpless family on his hands, he could not volunteer, join either Garibaldi or the regular army; and when he counts up his life's trials, he puts that second. The greatest of all (and that accounts for much) was the loss of his one boy, Dante Bruto Augusto. He had married in 1866. His mother, to whom he was devoted, died in February, 1870, and in November of the same year this "wonderful child," just three years and seven months old. His description of the sudden, unlooked-for death is too painful for translation.

"So I lost him," he writes to Chiarini. "He was beautful, hale, and a real miracle for his age. Then he was so strong and good and so loving. How he loved his mother, and, oh! the things he used to say to her. He used to recite *Salute o Satanna, O ribellione*, with all his clear voice, striking the table with his little hand, the floor with his foot. And round that child I had wound all my joys and hopes for the future; all that was worthy in my soul I had concentrated on that tiny head. When he appeared, it seemed as though the sun had risen on my soul; when I placed my hand on his head, I forgot all sad things, evil and hate disappeared, I felt my heart grow larger, I felt good. Poor my child and poorer me! how sad must be the rest of life—this remainder which I had accustomed myself to consider as all given to him, to be by him consoled and strengthened. It seemed that we were to walk together, I showing him the path, he helpng me along it, until I should go to rest and he continue more securely and less sad. I meant him to grow up strong, free, and modest, and his character promised all this. He would, if I had died, have sustained his mother and sisters; they all would have remembered me and kept my name in honor. And now all that is but a 'has been.' Nothing now is true!"

This fearful loss altered life for the bereaved father, nor was the year calculated to give him peace. He had begun, as we say, an ardent worshipper of the King who fought so gallantly on the Lombard plains; then Garibaldi enthralled him, and the conduct of the Government towards the Liberator disgusted him, his indignation coming to a climax after Aspromonte. So on through all the sixties, especially after Mentana and the unspeakable servility of the Government to France. All the old traditions of republican grandeur and liberty returned to take possession of the poet's soul. The wretched entry into Rome by the breach in Porta Pia was too prosaic for his ideal. "The Italian Government," he wrote, "goes up the triumphal path as if it were the holy staircase, on its knees, with a rope round its neck, making crosses with its arms to right and to left, and crying for pardon. *I cannot help it, I cannot help it! They force me forward by kicking me from behind!* Oh what an entry into Rome!"

He had been appointed to the chair of Italian literature in Bologna by Mamiani just after Cavour's death, and had thrown his whole soul into his work.

"Few," writes Chiarini, "have had such a lofty ideal of a teacher's mission as Carducci—lofty in the sense of duty. No one brings to the task of literature more rigid and scrupulous ideas of rectitude and morality. This is why he is so inexorable towards charlatans and impostors. The teacher and the writer, he maintains, are bound to know thoroughly the matter of which they speak or write. A literary man is a worker just as is a mason, a carpenter, any artisan whatsoever. If an artisan tries to cheat by palming off bad work, he is held to be dishonest and loses all credit. Why should not the same terms and treatment be applied to a professor who pretends to teach what he does not know, to a writer who, trusting to the ignorance of his readers, palms off on them, as his own, work and doctrines which do not belong to him? Indignant, too, is he with editors who underpay honest literary work. These are the stupid Italian maxims, he says. Here it is held that literary work is not work but contemplation, dreams, ideal nonsense; that the writer is not a worker, but a missionary, a priest, a tribune, or a plaything of the devil, who has in his charge polite literature and Italian civilization."

We canot follow Chiarini's clear defence of Carducci's political evolution; nor is it really important, as he has but returned to his "first love" since the party of action, from which he hoped so much, from the time of their accession to power in 1876 but plunged the nation deeper and deeper down into the slough of despond where yet she is struggling. We must end with Carducci's very characteristic letter to the students, who wished to do him honor in some yet undetermined manner:

"That the students care to remember my forty years of teaching in this university is pleasing to me, even in the fashion of it, which is not to be noisy. The newspapers, letters, even poems threaten me with what to-day is called a jubilee. . . . A jubilee, according to Scripture, signifies a year of perfect quiet, in which the Church promises the remission of sins to those who perform certain acts of penitence. Now am I in a state to perform acts of penitence? I doubt it. Again, according to the Mosaic law, fifty years ought to intervene between one jubilee and another; the Christian law has reduced the years to twenty-five. But only five

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years ago my jubilee was celebrated, and to repeat it at such a brief interval would exceed all the powers of indulgences. So, briefly and truthfully, from my heart I thank all, but I find myself in a state of mind and body in which any noise, material or moral, disturbs my quiet; without which there can be no jubilee."

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

ANOTHER LESSON FROM SPAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A fresh reason for the faith that is in him will be welcomed by any Imperialist, so I advise him to read the following extracts from a cheerful argument made in behalf of the Spanish King Charles V., when that forerunner of President McKinley was active in the work of pacification. The letter was written about 1520 by Martin Fernandez Enciso, a crown officer in the West Indies, a scholar and a soldier of renown. He says in part:

"Puissant Sire: The Bachelor Enciso humbly salutes your Majesty and begs to say: that in the year 1512 . . . the Dominican friars contended in Santo Domingo that Christians could not hold nor own the Indians they had enslaved [the word is *encomendados*, meaning a condition similar to feudal vassalage], and hence must restore all the gold they had gained by means of them. Whereupon the King [Fernando] convoked in Burgos a large council of Dominican and Franciscan theologians, bishops, and other dignitaries who [drew up certain charges and regulations]. . . . And next year, Pedrarias Dávila and I being about to go on an expedition against Darien, the Dominicans again interposed, declaring the King could not order that invasion. In view of which your Highness ordered the friars of San Pablo de Valladolid . . . to study the question, and to give answer on certain points which I would present to them. And on the day set they convened, a large gathering of doctors of divinity, before whom I argued in favor of your Highness's royal rights, citing certain Biblical texts, and spoke to the following effect:

" 'Your Grace will remember that the gentiles and idolaters possessed the Promised Land, wherein they sacrificed upon many altars to their idols, blaspheming God; and God gave this land to Abraham and his children. . . . [reciting the history to where Moses died and Joshua succeeded him]. And Joshua sent to demand the submission of Jericho and the surrender of the Promised Land that God had given them. But as they refused, Joshua took the city and slew all its people [save Rahab and her household], and then he took all that land by force of arms, slew unnumbered gentiles, captured many and made them slaves. And all this was done according to the will of God, for all those people were idolaters.'

"Having cited this authority, I showed that the Pope, representing God, had given to the Catholic King [Ferdinand] the lands of the Indies which the idolaters possessed, for him to hold in the name of God and our holy faith; I showed that the King could most righteously demand those lands of the idolatrous Indians, and that, if they refused, could make war against them, take the lands by force, slay the inhabitants or take them for slaves, as Joshua did in the Promised Land.

"And after long argument all the reverend council . . . declared the Pope could give and the King subjugate those lands as I had indicated, could enslave those that resisted, and they who surrendered could be held as vassals, obliged to serve those whom the King sent to hold the territory—all of which is duly recorded in the records at Sevilla."

The letter, which goes on elaborating the argument at great length, concludes with notice of another frivolous objection to a proposed additional annexation of islands, and begs the Emperor to have his confessor read the letter, convoke the council, and send the proper order to the Indies, for the greater glory of God, the aggrandizement of his Imperial Majesty, and the destruction of idolatry (note the anticlimax—or climax, perhaps).

This letter is to be found in 'Documentos Inéditos del Archivo de Indias,' vol. i., p. 441, and should be inserted in the next Army Appropriation Bill, changing "idolatrous," perhaps, to "uncivilized," the "Promised Land" to "outlet for our rapidly growing commerce," etc. H. P. E.

PALO ALTO, CAL., May 7, 1901.

Notes.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will shortly publish 'The Convulsion in China at the End of the Century,' by Dr. Arthur H. Smith.

'Treason and Plot: Struggles for Catholic Supremacy in the Last Years of Queen Elizabeth,' by Martin A. S. Hume, and 'The Great War Trek,' personal South African experiences by James Barnes, will be brought out during the present month by D. Appleton & Co.

Shortly forthcoming from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. is 'Substitutes for Saloons.'

The Neale Publishing Co., Washington, have nearly ready the 'Autobiography of Richard Malcolm Johnston'; four volumes, "In De Miz Series," embracing eighteen negro dialect stories by Mrs. LaSalle Corbell Pickett, widow of Gen. Pickett; 'Dorothy Quincy, Wife of John Hancock, with the Events of her Time,' by Ellen C. D. Q. Woodbury; 'Thirty-six Years in the White House,' by Thomas F. Pendel, the veteran doorkeeper; 'Money-Making Occupations for Women,' by Mrs. Katherine R. Kilbourn; and a Life of Poe, by Col. John A. Joyce.

Four years ago we commended Mr. Frank M. Chapman's 'Bird Life: A Guide to the Study of Our Common Birds' (D. Appleton & Co.), and particularly the designs of Mr. Ernest Seton-Thompson. The publishers have now brought out a new edition with a selection of seventy-five full-page plates, lithographically colored after the original drawings. By those whom the author had in mind to interest and instruct, this will certainly be welcomed as an extra help in the pursuit of bird-lore, while the volume gains decidedly in gayety of appearance. Artistically, however, we should rate the coloring lower than the draughtsmanship.

Prof. L. H. Bailey's illustrated 'Cyclopædia of American Horticulture' (Macmillan) is making commendable progress, and we now have the third volume, N—Q, leaving but one other to appear. The principal articles are, among trees, peach (15 pp.), prunus (14 pp.), pinus (11 pp.), pear (10 pp.), quercus (9 pp.), pomology (8 pp.), orange (8 pp.), and plum (7). Under the last rubric we read that "California analyses have shown the fig to stand highest in nutritive value, the apricot and plum second, and the prune and orange about equal for third place." Orchids have ten pages allotted them, nepenthes eight. The horticultural capacity of the Philippine Islands and of Porto Rico is discussed under their respective headings. 'Perfumery gardening, hardly beyond the experimental stage, and horticultural photography are other titles. We notice Oakèsia (from William Oakes) as Rhodèsia (from Cecil Rhodes). There are many fine full-page photographic plates of fruit, vegetables, and forest landscape.

In sympathy with the late Col. Ingersoll's crusade against Bible and priestcraft, Mr. Peter Eckler of this city reprints 'Erasmus in Praise of Folly,' a weapon which would generally be thought superseded even if it had, by virtue of an idiomatic translation, become an English classic. The version here reproduced is hopelessly archaic and more or less obscure for present-day readers. Holbein's illustrations are thrown in with as little reason, and are a medley of copies from wood and copper sources, seldom suggesting what merit the original drawings possessed. The book is a curiosity and little more.

Dr. Samuel A. Green, librarian of the Massachusetts Historical Society, has added to his remarkable series of volumes and pamphlets relating to the history of Groton, Mass., one more volume, 'Three Military Diaries Kept by Groton Soldiers in Different Wars.' These diaries are of Lieut. Dudley Bradstreet at the siege of Louisburg, 1745-'46; Sergeant David Holden in the French and Indian War, 1760; and Lieut. Amos Farnsworth in the Revolutionary War, 1775-'79. Each of these diaries has already been printed as a contribution by Dr. Green to the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. In bringing them together in a volume, he has added a preface, an appendix, and an excellent index. The diaries are printed *verbatim et literatim* with the many contractions and other peculiarities carefully retained, and nothing could furnish a better picture of the daily life of the camp in those days. Their considerable value as historical documents is enhanced by Dr. Green's numerous intelligent footnotes. Like his other volumes, this work is not published, but a few copies are on sale with George E. Littlefield, No. 67 Cornhill, Boston.

A similarly pertinacious devotee of Lancaster, Mass., Mr. Henry S. Nourse, has issued two pamphlets, 'A Supplement to the Early Records and Military Annals' of that town, and 'A Bibliography of Lancastriana,' both placed on sale at the Town Library. The former contains a map showing Mrs. Rowlandson's "removes" during her brief captivity with the Indians and return. Her famous Narrative (1682) appears to be the very corner-stone of the Bibliography in the narrow sense. No copy of the first edition is known to exist. In all, twenty-nine editions are recorded. Mr. Nourse's own list is voluminous.

Two short and highly condensed studies by Leon H. Vincent discuss the French Academy and Pierre Corneille (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The former admittedly draws its matter from well-known sources, and advances no pretensions beyond those of a popular monograph; it emphasizes the often-alleged causal connection between the influence of the Hôtel de Rambouillet and the foundation of the society of Forty Immortals. In treating of Corneille, the essayist accepts the somewhat conventional view of Richelieu's attack upon "Le Cid," charging the Cardinal with the amateur's traditional jealousy of professional skill, and apparently gliding over the awkward question of the moral issues involved in the suggestions of the plot of the famous drama.

Completeness can never be affirmed of any

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collection of Southern negro songs. They are still being modified in a thousand ways, and production can hardly have ceased altogether. The best have, doubtless, been published, and it remains for some musical mind to make an anthology which would insure a wider vogue than the "singers" from the various Southern institutions have secured for any but two or three favorites. The latest collection is from the blackest part of the Black Belt of Alabama, namely, the vicinity of Calhoun, Lowndes County, where the Calhoun Colored School (ironically fateful collocation) has been established for nine years, to the vast moral and material advantage of the population ('Calhoun Plantation Songs.' Boston: C. W. Thompson & Co., 13 West Street). Miss Emily Hallowell has gathered, arranged, and harmonized these melodies, all "spirituals," in the Sea Island category, for the benefit of the School. We find among them but a single one, "Wrastling Jacob," that in theme is matched in the comprehensive 'Slave Songs of the United States,' but the music is wholly different. Some wholesome reflections for Christians of all colors are invited by the nature of the words sung with so much fervor and exaltation by these benighted believers.

Every one knows that the most striking feature about children is their remarkable (unhappily, evanescent) charm. This being the case, it is a little singular that books concerning children are for the most part distinguished for their lack of charm. A notable exception to the general rule was Miss Shinn's book of last year. Less striking, but also particularly pleasing, is 'The Child,' by W. B. Drummond, published as one of their attractive "Temple Cyclopædic Primers," by Dent-Macmillan. This little book gives no more than it is indispensable that every mother should know; the information is good and wise, both as regards the physical care of the child and still more its moral and intellectual up-bringing. We learn that in England the kindergarten is regarded as a luxury of the rich; that in America many towns of moderate size have more free kindergartens than the whole of England put together, and that these have been found to be so serviceable that it is merely a question of time when they shall be made a regular part of the public-school system.

F. E. Turneaure and H. L. Russell's 'Public Water Supplies' (John Wiley & Son) has been designed as a text-book for technical schools. It is gratifying to find so painstaking and original a compilation from the latest and best sources. The full list of the literature of each topic, found at the end of the chapter, and the bringing together in compact form of valuable recent data, make the book exceedingly useful to the water-works engineer as well as to the student, even though, as the author modestly suggests, the specialist will find in it little that is new. A comparison of this work with a standard treatise published twenty-three years ago furnishes an index of important lines of development in the science of water-supply. In the earlier volume the subject of quality of water occupies six per cent. of the whole space, and that of works for purification about four per cent., whereas in the present volume these subjects occupy twelve per cent. and fourteen per cent. respectively. The earlier treatise contains scarcely a suggestion of the value of bacteriological studies as a guide to the safety of the supply and the efficacy of purification works, and only a hint of the important agency of the water-supply in spreading typhoid fever and other water-borne diseases—a subject very fully treated in the present work. Nearly every chapter bears the impress of the research and experience of the last quarter-century, which has been a period of remarkable progress in the development and treatment of public water-supply and the extension of water-works. There is a valuable chapter on practical operation and maintenance.

The ninth edition of the first volume of Kiepert's 'Differential- und Integral- Rechnung' (Hanover: Helwing) has just been issued. Although nominally devoted to the differential calculus, it contains much matter on functions, series, curves, and solution of equations which in this country is generally found in books on higher algebra and analytic geometry. These topics are more clearly treated by the use of elementary principles of the calculus, and it would be of great advantage to American students if our text-books should be revised on this German method. The volume contains no problems for solution by the student, but many interesting numerical exercises are worked out in detail, so that on the whole the book is more practical than American texts. Hyperbolic functions, with good tables, are introduced in this edition in view of their increasing use over the older logarithmic functions. A valuable feature is the recapitulation, in thirty pages at the end, of all the important formulas demonstrated in the book.

A special education for commercial life is advocated in the *Technology Review* for April, by Prof. D. R. Dewey of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. While holding it to be now essential in every department of business, from the office-boy up, he limits his inquiry to what should constitute the training of the youth who is ambitious of becoming one of "the great employers of industry and heads of large firms and business houses." He takes for his text, as it were, the complaint to him by a successful manufacturer and exporter of machinery: "I can hire young men, graduates of engineering schools, to go into the mechanical departments of my business; but I do not know where to turn to find a young man properly trained to come into my office, who, by an appreciation of the problems which I have to face, can relieve me of a portion of responsibility." A tentative introductory curriculum, including the fundamental commercial processes, as accounting, banking, transportation, organization of capital, etc., is laid down, and is followed by suggestions as to advanced studies, with a warning against the error of a too exclusive attention to economic and political studies. Some knowledge of the nature of machinery and the chemistry of industrial products is as essential to success in distributing goods as knowledge of languages and of the world's markets.

The new excavations at the temple of Athene on the island of Aegina, recently begun under the supervision of Professor Furtwängler, have already yielded encouraging results. In a propylon not touched by Von Hallerstein during the excavations in 1811, there were found, among a number of other objects, two heads of Parian marble belonging to figures on the western and eastern Aeginetan pediment groups in the Munich Glyptothek, where, it is to be supposed, they will some day take their rightful places, now occupied by Thorwaldsen's substitutes.

In our last issue, reviewing Books on Painting, we unfortunately dropped a line in the last sentence of the last paragraph but one on page 377. It should read: "The first was *local and temporary; the second was* akin to all good painting," etc.

—*Harper's* for June contains a paper by J. J. Benjamin-Constant, called "My Portraits," with some interesting reproductions of the painter's work. An artist's impressions of his own pictures are always entertaining. He calls his portrait of Queen Victoria an "historical vision"; the present Queen, as a subject, he pronounces "formidable." Of his picture of M. de Blowitz he observes: "I dare to say this: It is one of the best my art has produced"—and indeed the lover of portraits and character must feel so. It is, even in a reproduction, an undeniable portrait. "Note the keen, alert expression of the eyes. . . . Behind them lies a brain that knows how to see and how to relate the history of his times, . . . oftentimes, indeed, for the benefit of statesmen *who gladly permit themselves to be thus informed.*" A good solid article is that on "Hallucinations," by Dr. Andrew Wilson. It embodies a scientific theory of ghost-seeing, which will probably be received coldly by all who like the ghostly better than they do the rational. Dr. Wilson does not in the least doubt that many of the old ghost stories are true, to the extent that the ghost was actually visualized by the person to whom the visitation occurred. What he insists upon is that the brain "can project its memories forward in the form of subjective sensations as readily, in some cases, as it can receive and deal with the objective sensations that it receives from the outer world." As we understand it, he thinks that the retina itself is thus reflectively acted upon from within. What Blake, Luther, and Tasso had that most people have not, was a power "of subjective reproduction of the brain's stored-up concepts." As a typical case of hallucination, Dr. Wilson cites that related by the Rev. Dr. Jessopp in the *Athenæum* of January 10, 1880, in which the ghost seems to have actually been identified as an unconscious reproduction of the figure of Parsons, the Jesuit father whom the seer had previously described in a book of which he was the author, in terms closely corresponding with those in which he afterward described the ghost. At the time of the visitation he was alone, at the dead of night, in an old library, belonging to a Walpole, "and Father Parsons was the leader of Henry Walpole, the hero of his just-cited book." Whether this explanation of the genesis of this particular ghost is correct or not, it must be admitted by all candid minds that the analysis of the facts in the case and the hypothesis suggested are both strictly scientific. "The Go-Away Child," by Frances Aymar Matthews, is a melancholy story of Chinese life. Twenty years ago her Chinamen might have been very "convincing"; one does not feel quite so sure now how much of our old China was real and how much melodrama. At all events, this writer has the power to stir our heart-

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strings—not so useless a gift as the writers of some fiction imagine.

—*Scribner's* contains an article by John La Farge on Hawaii, "Passages from a Diary in the Pacific." The illustrations are from sketches by the author, and, even without color, are interesting. In this case the color is in the essay, which is full of carefully written description of effects jotted down, as witnessed, by the hand of a master. Thomas F. Millard has an account of Gen. Christian De Wet, accompanied by what looks like a good portrait. Mr. Millard's writing is superior at one point to most war-correspondents' writing; it is always intelligible. Even his views of the relative military merits of De Wet and Cronje he explains so clearly that the non-expert can follow him. His theory is, that Cronje was an obstinate blunderer, who was caught in a death-trap at Paardeburg when he might, had he taken a hint from De Wet, have saved himself. After Cronje was fairly cornered, De Wet, with a handful of men, withdrawn from the siege of Kimberley, "opened a way for the Boer army to come out, and kept it open for a whole day." By means of the heliograph he urged his superior to abandon his impedimenta and escape; but Cronje insisted that he could get away whenever he wanted to. The next day French's cavalry, coming out of Kimberley, cut De Wet off; the gap was closed, and "was never reopened except for Cronje and the remnant of his army to march out prisoners of war." De Wet's appearance is described as entirely unmilitary. When Mr. Millard met him, there was nothing about him to indicate his rank—neither uniform, nor even coat. But for his rifle and bandolier, "he might easily have passed for a farmer." The concluding paper on "The Southern Mountaineer," by John Fox, jr., gives an account of the border-State blood feud, which throws a strong side light on the practice of lynching. The feuds take us back, Mr. Fox thinks, a hundred years—we should say to mediæval times. Here we have communities in which blood feuds are handed down from father to son until whole families are exterminated, while the original cause of the difficulty has become a myth or is forgotten. The feud is not carried on by any regularized private warfare, like the duel, but by murder, ambush, and hired assassination. Lynching goes hand in hand with those practices, and both testify to the absence of justice and organized police. On the whole, we are inclined to doubt whether some of these communities are not, in many respects, less enlightened and more given to brutality and violence than rural mediæval communities were. It is not very reassuring to be told that the innocent stranger, who has no part or lot in the local quarrel, need not expect to be murdered; for it is quite clear that he stands a good chance of being, any day, shot accidentally in a chance brawl.

—We have already commented on Professor Münsterberg's article in the *Atlantic* on "Productive Scholarship in America." The writer, in the true American spirit of optimism, declares that when America wants a thing, she "has to have it"; ergo, as soon as we set resolutely about it, we shall produce Darwins, and Virchows, and Helmholtzes, and Pasteurs, and Mommsens, and Huxleys in abundance. The doubt persists, however, whether true scholarship can be produced at will. Certainly a community will not be distinguished by scholars which does not itself care much about scholarship; and how much do we love it, as compared with stocks, golf, and football? Time will show. Edmund Gosse contributes an article on Mandell Creighton, Bishop of London, and manages to paint a portrait in which the disagreeable traits are easily recognizable. If the biographic art consists in giving reasons for thinking that the subject was rather a poor creature, Mr. Gosse has it to perfection. When the reader has done, he remembers that some people thought the Bishop of London a worldly-minded man, and others accused him of "flippancy"; and wonders what Mr. Gosse's impression of him really was.

—Baron Pierre de Coubertin contributes to the *Century* an account of Émile Loubet, President of the French Republic, accompanied by a portrait. M. Loubet is one of those statesmen about whom all accounts agree, and consequently the reader will not find much that is new in the article. A safe man, according to every one, his Presidency is not likely to be marked by anything melodramatic. In fact, his action in the Dreyfus case was distinctly anti-melodramatic. Baron de Coubertin describes him as a great reader and a man of "vast experience," who, however, has "not travelled at all." The Baron thinks that his lack of acquaintance with other countries may prove a serious inconvenience; but he is no more handicapped in this way than many of his fellow-rulers. Of all the potentates who at this time divide the government of the world, how many have travelled in such a way as to know other countries? Neither Lord Salisbury, nor Mr. Balfour, nor Mr. McKinley, nor the Emperor of Russia, nor the King of Italy, nor the Sultan of Turkey, nor even the German Emperor has anything but a superficial acquaintance with most of the world outside that part of it over which they preside. Even Croker, who governs us from England, is not really a travelled man, and Lord Randolph Churchill, who was a great traveller, did not succeed as a statesman. In fact, it might be seriously maintained that, from Alfred the Great to Loubet, the experience of travel and that on which statesmen and bosses are nurtured are diverse. Robert T. Hill contributes a "lesson in the government of distant colonies" under the rather fantastic title of "The Broken Necklace." The broken necklace means the Lesser Antilles and the Windward Islands, all colonies, mostly if not entirely managed by distant governments, and all more or less failures. Such colonies, says Mr. Hill, "are never free." Some of the smaller ones "are forgotten," and perish from sheer inattention, and "this is the apparent fate of the Lesser Antilles." "Since our national Government has seen fit to establish for Porto Rico a colonial administration closely resembling that of the adjacent crown colonies," it is called upon to heed the lesson of "injustice and economic strangulation" taught by them. Among the best illustrated articles are three on "Out-of-the-Way Places in the Orient," by Mrs. Lockwood de Forest, Marion M. Pope, and V. Scott O'Connor.

—Certain Jesuit Fathers in the Philippine Archipelago conceived the idea, simultaneously with the close of the Spanish domination, of compiling a comprehensive work on this watery possession, together with a new atlas which had for some months previously been in preparation at the Manila Observatory. At what stage our Government came to the support of this enterprise, we do not know, but the result is two very handsome quarto volumes issuing from the Government Printing-Office at Washington, 'El Archipiélago Filipino,' etc., and accompanying Atlas, in the guise of a supplement to the report of the first American Philippine Commission. The first volume is devoted to a general politico-economic description of the islands, in due order, followed by chapters on ethnography; religious condition, agriculture and industries; chronology of events; mountains; geology; vegetation; zoölogy. The second and smaller volume deals with climate, earthquakes, cyclones, and variation of terrestrial magnetism in Manila, and is abundantly supplied with maps and charts, as the first volume is with valuable illustrations (mostly photographic). The Atlas, finally, a folio, is provided with an index. In this alone the text is English. No one unfamiliar with Spanish can make use of the statistical part—the "colección de datos"—of this work, which is a credit to its authors. They say that the circumstance of the compulsory reunion of all the Jesuit missionaries in Manila during the late "unpleasantness" facilitated the compilation of the survey, and they express their obligation to the United States Government for no less consideration and "subvención" than that extended to the Mission by Spain herself, a foster-mother who, with all her faults, "ha dispensado al país muchísimo bien." These volumes, an indispensable source of the latest information, may be procured of John J. Wynne, S.J., 27 and 29 West Sixteenth Street, New York; the Government having allotted 1,000 copies to Father Algue, director of the Observatory, to be sold for the benefit of that famous institution. The price is twenty dollars.

—There is some embarrassment in noticing a work in nine volumes of three divisions, with the third division unpublished, as is the case with 'Modern Eloquence,' edited by ex-Speaker Reed, with the aid of associates and a committee of selection (Philadelphia: John D. Morris & Co.; New York: University Publishing Co.). Not that the general scheme needs further exemplification, but the last three volumes are to contain indexes with a view to making the work "a topical cyclopædia of oratorical quotations," of practical utility "to public speakers and to all persons called to prepare a lecture, respond to a toast, or deliver an occasional address." The good cheer of the family circle, too, has been considered in this compilation, for "stories that have convulsed great audiences with laughter cannot fail to evoke an echoing ripple around the fireplace." Then, portraits of the greater lights in this galaxy of speakers are thrown in for the edification of readers. The few non-English selections, from the French, German, and Spanish, have been translated, sometimes specially for this occasion. The first three volumes are devoted exclusively to "After-Dinner Speeches," and these alone constitute a novel excuse for the present compilation. A portion of them have never before been published, and the range of all is from set preparation to various degrees of impromptu. Senator Beveridge and Minister Wu are the up-to-date representation. Sen-

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ator Depew gets 60 pages, Mr. Choate 56, Gen. Horace Porter 53, Lowell 30, G. W. Curtis 28, Mr. Evarts 25, Mr. Beecher 23, Mark Twain 20; but of Mr. Reed himself there is nothing in the vein under consideration. It is convenient to have here Mr. McKinley's Chicago "Peace" Jubilee banquet speech on Duty and Destiny, of which a later generation will pronounce the humor more exquisite than that of Judge John Lowell's taking leave of the bench—a model in its own kind. There is another Chicago banquet speech, by Lincoln, in 1856—a mere fragment, but *ex pede Herculem*—which should have played the skeleton at the later hollow celebration. Of the second division, "Lectures," not much need be said. Phillips's "Lost Arts" and "Toussaint" jostle Artemus Ward's "Mormons," Thackeray's "Swift," Carlyle's "Mahomet," Claretie's "Shakspere and Molière," and Minister Wu's admirable discourse on the Doctrines of Confucius. This division is naturally far less scrappy than the old. The "introductions" to these two departments are little more than perfunctory.

—Some of our readers are aware of the all but unrivalled collection of Icelandic works brought together by our countryman, Prof. Willard Fiske, long a resident of Florence, and latterly at the Villa Landor. To a perhaps greater number his interest in chess is no secret. The two passions have been united in considerable gifts of works, chiefly relating to chess, to the National Library and the Chess Club at Reykjavik. He has further conceived the idea of starting a chess magazine printed in Icelandic, and the first two numbers of this journal have actually been issued. It bears the title of *I Uppnami* (*En prise*). All the expenses incidental to its publication are defrayed by its founder, and the proceeds of its sale are added to the funds of the Reykjavik Chess Club. In addition to this, Professor Fiske is printing a number of small pamphlets for free distribution among the islanders, dealing with the rules and principal moves of the game, of which they have but a rudimentary knowledge. To the north of Iceland, on the other hand, lies a small island called Grimsey. Its inhabitants—who number about 100 souls, are miserably poor, and obtain a precarious living by the exportation of wild-bird's feathers—are nearly all ardent chess-players, and this fact, together with their poverty-stricken condition, having been brought to Mr. Fiske's knowledge, he has ordered a number of chess-boards, books, etc., to be sent to them for general distribution. He has for some time been engaged on a history of 'Chess in Iceland.'

ROGERS'S HISTORY OF BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA.

A History of Babylonia and Assyria. By Robert William Rogers, Ph.D., D.D., LL.D., F.R.G.S., Professor in Drew Theological Seminary. In two volumes. New York: Eaton & Mains. 1900. Pp. xx, 429, xv, 418.

Of the 429 pages in the first volume of Prof. Rogers's work, more than 250 deal with travels, explorations, and excavations in Persia, Babylonia, and Assyria, and the story of the decipherment of the cuneiform script in its various genera, including "Sumerian and Vannic." In other words, one-quarter of the entire work is of the nature of a preface. This might be unfavorably criticised in a work calling itself 'A History of Babylonia and Assyria,' if it were not for the fact that this prefatory matter is probably the most valuable part. Indeed, the first eight chapters constitute a monograph on the subject of Babylonian and Assyrian exploration (including the decipherment of inscriptions), the most complete and thorough yet published in any language. Prof. Rogers has diligently sought out the records of all visits to the country, from the journey of Benjamin of Tudela in 1160 A. D., in the interest of his Jewish co-religionists, to the last reported discovery of the University of Pennsylvania expedition to Babylonia at Nippur in the spring of 1900, and we must humbly confess that he cites the names of not a few travellers of whom we had never heard before. Inasmuch as it was through the decipherment of the Persian inscriptions that the way was opened to the study of the remains of Babylonia and Assyria, the first chapter is devoted to an account of the earlier travellers and decipherers in Persia, beginning with the visit to Persepolis of Odoric, the Minorite friar, in 1320. The first successful attempt at the decipherment of any of the characters of the Persian script was made by Grotefend, who presented his methods and results to the Göttingen Academy of Sciences in four papers in 1802 and 1803. The original papers were found in the archives of the Academy and published many years later, but at the time the Academy "refused absolutely to believe in his methods or his results, and would not take the risk of disgracing itself by publishing Grotefend's paper, describing his work, in its transactions" (p. 54). German writers invariably speak of Grotefend as the man on whose foundations all the later work of decipherment rested; and, influenced too much, we cannot help thinking, by them, Prof. Rogers describes his fairly correct decipherment of the proper names Darius Hystaspes and Xerxes, and the common noun "king," which was substantially what Grotefend achieved, as an "epoch-making result," from which, "in due course, came the power to read the words of Babylonian and Assyrian."

In point of time Grotefend has the priority among all decipherers of the cuneiform inscriptions, and he deserves the credit of that priority; but "the power to read the words of Babylonian and Assyrian" did not come in due course from his efforts. His results are rather interesting historically as the first partially successful efforts at the decipherment of a very few words, not as the actual basis of later decipherment. It is Rawlinson's work on which the whole structure of cuneiform decipherment in all its genera depends, and this work was not the outgrowth of Grotefend's discovery. As Rogers says, Rawlinson "had certainly begun his work and adopted his method before he learned of what was going on in Europe" (p. 64). Later, he obtained some suggestions and corroborations from the work of Burnouf and Lassen, who had on their part utilized the labors of Grotefend. It is to Rawlinson's achievement that the term "epoch-making" should be applied—his transliteration and translation of the Persian text of the trilingual Behistun inscription in 1846, and his memoir on the Semitic text of the same inscription in 1851. It is the latter with which the study of Babylonian and Assyrian begins.

Following the account of the decipherment of the Persian cuneiform comes a chapter on the "Early Explorations in Babylonia." It is interesting to note that Eldred, in 1583, and others, supposed Baghdad to have been the site of ancient Babylon—a confusion which was, in part at least, due to the identification of the remains called Akerkuf, near Baghdad, with the Tower of Babel. Eldred thus describes these ruins:

"Here also are yet standing the ruines of the olde tower of Babell, which being upon a plaine ground seemeth a farre off very great, but the nearer you come to it, the lesser and lesser it appeareth: sundry times I have gone thither to see it, and found the remnants yet standing about a quarter of a mile in compass, and almost as high as the stone work of Paules steeple in London, but it sheweth much bigger" (p. 90).

The same description is true to-day.

In general, the account of the explorations and excavations, as also of the decipherment, is not only remarkably full and accurate, but also peculiarly interesting, owing to the connection which Professor Rogers attempts to establish between one work and another, imparting to the whole story a logical cohesion. We must question a statement regarding the latest results of the University of Pennsylvania's expedition to Babylonia. Quoting from Hilprecht, Rogers says that there were found by the expedition at Nippur "not less than sixteen thousand cuneiform documents, forming part of the temple library during the latter half of the third millennium B. C." Is this statement not somewhat premature? Have those documents been actually examined? That the tablets were found there is no question, but no information has been forthcoming regarding their contents to prove that they are a temple library rather than a mere deposit of archives, such as those which have been found elsewhere at Nippur and Telloh. It is devoutly to be wished that they may prove to constitute a library, and not mere archives of contracts and the like.

After this admirable monograph there are three or four chapters of an introductory character on the sources at the historian's disposal, the geography and ethnology of Babylonia and Assyria, and the chronology of their rulers. Against some of Professor Rogers's statements in his geographical chapter entitled "The Lands of Babylonia and Assyria," we have put a question-mark. For instance, he says that the alluvial territory deposited by the Tigris and Euphrates at the head of the Persian Gulf is growing "at the rate of about a mile in seventy years, and there is good reason for believing that its average growth in historic times has been not less than a mile in thirty years" (p. 268). The first part of the statement comes from Ainsworth. The second part suggests that there is some sort of evidence that the rate of deposit was less than half as rapid in early times as at present. We are not aware that there is any such evidence, and consider Professor Rogers's statement misleading in so far as it suggests the existence of information which does not exist. On page 273 he says:

"The Tigris and the Euphrates have both flood seasons, and carry their waters over a wide extent of country, exactly as the Nile. This fact is so perfectly clear that there can be no doubt concerning it, though Herodotus directly asserts the contrary, saying, 'The river does not, as in Egypt, overflow the corn lands of its own accord, but is spread over them by the help of engines.'"

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In point of fact, there is a portion of the alluvial land which is flooded by overflow, but over by far the largest part of the country water must be spread by artificial means, as Herodotus says.

On page 282 Professor Rogers speaks of the variety of the trees of the land. So far as Babylonia is concerned, this statement is incorrect. The land is and always has been notably deficient in trees. On the next page he says: "The larger animals were numerous, but of all the varieties that existed wild only the ox, ass, goat, and sheep were domesticated at an early period and made useful to man. To these were added the domestic hog, which seems, however, to have remained in a semi-wild state. In a later period the horse and camel were brought into use." And again: "The wild animals were of extraordinary number" (p. 284). So far as Babylonia is concerned, we are not aware of any evidence of the existence of numerous larger wild animals, or that the ox, ass, goat, or sheep ever existed wild there. Professor Rogers mentions also two varieties of lions, "one without a mane and the other with a mane of thick, tangled black hair." Has he not confused sex with species?

On pages 286 and 287 he says, speaking of the manufacture of bricks; "some of these were dried in the sun, and were then deemed sufficient for the filling in of the interiors of walls. Others were baked in kilns, and with these the walls were faced." This would give the impression that sun-baked bricks were used in general for interior filling only, which is not the case. Walls faced with kiln-baked bricks were the rare exception. Sun-dried bricks were in general use for all purposes, and even the tablets used for writing were in the vast majority of cases sun dried. On page 291 our author says: "Somewhat north of Larsa, probably at the mound of Tell-Id, was the city of Girsu." He has a bad habit of stating a thing as probably so on quite insufficient evidence, or, still worse, of saying "doubtless such and such was the fact" where the matter is in reality altogether in doubt and he is merely guessing. The only evidence for the identification of Tell-Id with Girsu is that the city of Girsu would seem, from the inscriptions, not to have been very remote from Larsa, and is, therefore, to be sought in some of the ruin mounds near Larsa. Tell-Id is a mound (a sand hill, it is true, but with indications of ruins at the foot) not too far removed from Larsa; but there are in the same general region a large number of mounds, the names of many of which we do not even know, for they have none, and any one of them would equally well satisfy the condition of being not too far removed from Larsa.

On pages 294 and 295, speaking of Marduk, he says: "But Marduk's own position in the pantheon was not great enough to bring to the city a religious primacy, and he was therefore identified with the great god Bel, and under that name was worshipped in Babylon." This gives a false idea of what actually took place. Bel, lord, was an attribute of the god rather than his proper name. In the earlier period, En-Lil of Nippur was the Bel or Lord *par excellence*. When Babylonia gained the hegemony, its Bel, Marduk, came into prominence, and ultimately became *the* Bel, ousting En-Lil from that position.

Turning to the chapter on chronology, we do not find Professor Rogers's treatment of the earliest period satisfactory. He accepts the date of 3750 B. C. for Naram-Sin and 3800 for Sargon on the basis of Nabonidus's inscription, in which he professes to have found "the foundation-stone of Naram-Sin, which no king before me had found for 3200 years." Rogers admits that "it is indeed hardly probable that the historiographers of Nabonidus had before them lists which carried the dates backward to the exact number 3,200. It looks like a round number, and was probably intended to be so taken," but adds: "To cast it away altogether is, however, to leave us in the dark without a single definite point for reckoning" (p. 319). Accordingly he, very illogically, considers it "best to hold the date 3800 B. C. tentatively, pending further light on the subject." In other words, his "definite point" is no "definite point" whatever. The chronological lists of the early kings, on pp. 336 and 337, given as "reasonably well attested," are worse than useless, inasmuch as they mislead the reader, making him think that we know what we do not know. It would be far better to state the simple facts and leave the kings undated for the earlier periods, merely giving us what is known as to their order, showing which are contemporaneous, and what indications there are as to longer or shorter periods intervening between successive sovereigns. Even after 2300 B. C., as Professor Rogers points out, the chronology of Babylonian dynasties is in a desperate condition. Of the period before that we really know nothing but the names, and to some extent the order, of between forty and fifty kings and other rulers reigning contemporaneously or successively in Kengi, Shirpurla, Erech, Ur, Agade, Isin, and Larsa. They are few in number for the length of time over which their reigns are supposed to extend, and, when they are stretched out into long chronological tables, one is involuntarily reminded of the length of age of the antediluvian patriarchs in the Bible, so enormous are the periods assigned for the spaces between them.

We have dwelt at some length upon the prefatory and introductory chapters because they seem to us to constitute the most important portion of the work. The history proper is a mere chronicle of dynasties, wars, conquests, and defeats, with a notice of a building here and there. There is no attempt to give the history of the people, the progress and development of their civilization, their manners, customs, arts, etc. Professor Rogers has conscientiously examined an immense amount of original material, and in footnotes scattered through both volumes he gives welcome references to the inscriptions which have been consulted, and the literature on those inscriptions. Ten years, he says in his preface, have been consumed in the preparation of this work. It will prove a useful book of reference to the student, who should, however, have been furnished with a map. It is impossible to follow the Assyrian wars without some map, however sketchy it may be, and Professor Rogers's identifications of the countries mentioned in the Assyrian inscriptions would be vastly more valuable if he had thus illustrated them.

Was it the endeavor to make a rather dry and repetitious chronicle attractive to the average reader that led Professor Rogers to the use of a style which is sometimes too artificial and declamatory for ordinary historical purposes? His style is also too often careless. But more serious than such defects is the habit, already alluded to, of overdrawn statements or the presentation as facts of theories which really have no objective basis. We read too much of the Babylonian stock, the exhaustion of its vigor, the intermixture of other blood, the creation of a new stock, etc., or of the intrigues which must have influenced certain actions and caused certain events. We are told of Labashi-Marduk, the Labassarachos or Labarosoarchodos of the Greeks, that he "was but a youth when he became king. At once he became the subject of a conspiracy, directed against him, says tradition, because he displayed evil traits of character. That this reason was a mere excuse for a deep plot of the priesthood to wrest the throne from his hands there can be little doubt" (vol. ii., p. 358). What evidence is there of such a plot of the priesthood? Professor Rogers adduces none, but merely asserts, in the method which we have already criticised, that there can be "little doubt" that there was such a plot. That is not history. Again, he mentions Nabonidus's archæological ardor, as illustrated by notices which occur in his inscriptions, "that such and such a king's name has been found, and that the king had reigned so many years before the king who was now renewing their fallen works. These notices in the inscriptions of Nabonidus make his inscriptions of surpassing value to the student of the past." For corroboration of this he refers us in the footnote to the chapter on "Chronology" in the first volume. Turning to that chapter, we find, in the first place, that Nabonidus is not the only king who makes such references in his inscriptions; in the second place, that there are only three known inscriptions of Nabonidus in which such references occur; and in the third place, that the dates given in these inscriptions of Nabonidus are either altogether rejected by scholars, or at least are irreconcilable with certain other evidence as to the dates obtained from other sources.

In his treatment of Bible history, Professor Rogers seems to us admirably fair and judicious. We do, however, think that he does not altogether satisfactorily grasp the relations between Rezin of Damascus and Pekah of Israel, on the one side, and Ahaz of Judah and the Assyrians on the other (vol. ii., pp. 127, 128).

The book is presentable to the eye, of good paper and admirable print, and the publisher's work is, in general, well done. We have marked a few misprints, due in most cases to careless proof-reading.

MORE NOVELS.

The Fortune of a Day. By Grace Ellery Channing-Stetson. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Through Old-Rose Glasses, and Other Stories. By Mary Tracy Earle. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

King's End. By Alice Brown. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Pillar of Salt. By Jennette Lee. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Heritage of Unrest. By Gwendolen Overton. Macmillan Co.

The Story of Sarah. By M. Louise Forsslund. Brentano's.

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The Fourth Estate. Authorized translation from the original of A. Palacio Valdés, by Rachel Challice. Brentano's.

Lords of the North. By A. C. Laut. J. F. Taylor & Co.

The Ways of the Service. By Frederick Palmer. Charles Scribner's Sons.

On Peter's Island. By Arthur R. Ropes and Mary E. Ropes. Scribners.

Mrs. Channing-Stetson's short stories of Italy have the grace and refinement of her former studies. It is true that every year adds a gray hair to stories of Tuscan Beppos, Angiolinas and Padre Anselmos, and to the Anglo-Italian dialect appertaining thereto—the interjected *altro, che,* and the unspeakable "securely." However, they are all very charming, these Tuscan types, and charmingly adapted to the short story, in their equal leaning to the naïve and the dramatic. The writer sees sympathetically, chooses like an artist, and writes in simple, fitting style, affording in her modest book an hour's agreeable home travel.

Mrs. Earle's stories, of South and West, contain pleasing likenesses of local characters with coloring and dialect infused clearly but not heavily. These as a rule are subordinated to a definite point of incident in each story—too slight to be called a plot, but standing on its own feet, and gathering about itself as drapery the manners and speech of each indicated region. The writer seems to have a gift for collecting little unusual events, and putting them together with an art which effectively conceals art.

Miss Brown's 'King's End' reflects a rugged New Hampshire village with its surrounding upland pastures and pine woods and its variously queer and romantic peopling. The characters are far from the stereotyped village oddities. There is hardly one among the many who is not cast in an original mould; but they are drawn with a firmness and confidence that make them self-justifying. They seem less portraits than creations, and only well-executed creations could wear the reality of these. If not in every instance wholly credible, they are at least interesting. Many eccentrics are introduced and many absurd things happen, but the sense of probability is pleasantly challenged rather than uncomfortably jarred. The story, largely one of struggle between love and the Puritan's call to evangelic duty, moves forward engrossingly among sounds and odors of wild, rough New England hill-country and old gardens. An occasional tang of the so-called subtle in style leads us to express the hope that Miss Brown will not adopt an imitation Meredith manner.

'A Pillar of Salt' tells the story of an inventor and his ruling passion, and of his wife's part in his achievements—the usual share of the tired, practical, poverty-threatened wife of a visionary. The scene is laid in a mill-town of Connecticut, with a passing glimpse of a Western farm. The story, though not at all a Miss Wilkins story, is told in her fashion of short, pellet-like sentences, and with her microscopic eye for affairs of the village, farmyard, and kitchen. The mental processes of the mill-owner, the foil to the inventor, are not quite obvious to the reader; and where he touches the plot, it wavers. But there is capital description of the inventor, his wife, the five children, the neighbors, with a deal of country usage woven into the story in an entirely natural way. It is a little book of unmistakable ability—more so, however, as it steps onward than in contrived culmination. Culminating things happen, indeed, yet not inevitably. It has its strength in being a study of minds and manners, and, if its author's first work, should augur well for future essays.

Here and there among many amiable and more or less able experiments in bookmaking one lights upon a real book. Such is 'The Heritage of Unrest,' a story of the Territorial Indian wars of the 70s. The balance is praiseworthily held between the general historic interest of the great Indian question and the personal elements of private romance and development of character. Here is to be found a fine commanding view of the subject in its larger aspects—the civilian, military, and governmental treatment of the burning problem; further, a wonderfully graphic picture of the barbarous cruelties of the roused savage, with no less direct a light thrown upon the wrongs done to the red man. Of the army, whether officers or privates, the plain, dogged, do-your-duty heroism is gallantly chronicled; while the studies of the heroine with the strain of Apache in her blood, of the two men whose lives vitally touch hers, of the group of minor persons, are at once original and brimming with life. Such a book must have its share of atrocities. It is the history of a damnable epoch. The author's sense of proportion, grasp of cause and consequence, and her powerful way of conveying the story at once to mind and pulses, are quite exceptional.

In 'The Story of Sarah' we live on the shore of Long Island—now in a Dutch settlement, now in a native American village across the dividing brook, now on the sand beach and the dunes where the Life-Saving Station rears its fateful lookout. Dutch versus American forms part of the animus of the tale, but we must hope that it is only the romanticist's need of shadow that shows us the life-saving crew drunk on the night of the shipwreck and roused to a belated heroism by the young Dutch hero. There are pen-strokes of a crude strength in the descriptive portions of this novel. We clearly see villages, ocean, and bay, and life as influenced by each. We witness the horrors of shipwreck, the pangs of misplaced passion. We make acquaintance with many seaside types, few hackneyed, some forcible. But occasionally the positive characterization becomes caricature; the melodrama roars; the reader is annoyed at being made the gallery in spite of himself. The heroine at times behaves so preposterously that we are betrayed into the immorality of wishing the villain would succeed in carrying her off. But he does not; the sun goes down happily on a calm sea and a Dutch coffee-drinking, leaving us penetrated with a lively sense of sea and dune and some superfluity of human nature.

With the shores of Long Island one may contrast the Cantabrian coast by reading Valdés's minute annals of the town of Sarrio. The field is larger, the passions are the same. The tragedy is more tragic, the scandals more scandalous, the bouffe far more bouffe. The author of 'The Fourth Estate' has a fine talent for satirizing public and private affairs, and shows at length how a ridiculous press was established in Sarrio by the ridiculous enmities and aspirations of a ridiculous lot of grown-up children. The foibles of every one are described with a Balzac-like gift for detail, and with skilful differentiation, too, so that, for instance, he who is henpecked by his two sisters is in nowise to be confounded with him who is henpecked by his wife. Life would be rather tedious, one feels, in such company, and reading about it is rather tedious too. Yet one can yawn and admire at the same time. And admirable in truth is the minuteness bestowed on the human comedy as played by Spanish actors. A few noble souls lend seriousness to the scope of the story. Things surprising to the English reader are met herein, yet perhaps no more so than a Spaniard would find in a tale of Long Island.

History taught by tales of adventure has a recent manifestation in Miss Laut's 'Lords of the North,' a story of the last century's bitter wars between the two great fur-trading rivals, the Hudson's Bay and the Northwest Companies. The book begins with the kidnapping by Indians of a white woman and her child, and culminates in the Seven Oaks massacre of 1816, which in a sense marks the line between the days of pioneering and of home-building in a new world. While very like some scores of other books of adventure in form, this one has a comparatively untrodden country and unsung era for its basis. We meet old friends—the treacherous Indian, the wily French Canadian, the humorous Irish priest; the golden-haired, dare-devil saintly girl; the trapper with a thousand senses, the *habitant,* the *voyageur,* and eke the sublimely egotistic, modest, resourceful hero in the first person who acts like the 'Book of Golden Deeds' and talks like the Book of Acts. But, if we have these, we have also an insight into the lives of the early fur-traders and explorers such as we do not recall elsewhere, with many novel devices of peril and thrill. The book may be confidently offered to lovers of exciting reading, with a special recommendation to those who would fain realize what has been done for our country by "the unheralded forerunners of empire"—the old fur companies.

Mr. Palmer has made a volume of such readable stories that no one who opens it will leave it unfinished; and the reader's verdict will be that there could be no finer, stancher, more devoted tribute to the army and navy. The Anti-Imperialist naturally comes in for a snub; the "politician military" for many. Individual cases of lapse from the lofty standard of the service go to temper extremity of partisanship in the writer, but readers of this little book, whatever their political faith, cannot fail, we must think, to be stirred by its creed of loving and solemn pride in our service by land and sea—not necessarily as men who plant the American flag, but as men who do their duty by the steady light of corps attachment. We will not affirm that these stories as they stand would have been written had 'Plain Tales from the Hills' never been printed; but the likeness is one of occasion rather than of imitation, and the result an interesting work and a valuable document. The internal evidence is strong that these are the Philippines as they are.

A really good book by a foreigner dealing with Russian life and scenes, is so rare as to be almost non-existent. 'On Peter's Island' is the traditional exception which proves the rule. It is a thoroughly well-planned, well-executed story, of which the Russian settings are an essential part, not dragged in for the sake of

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"local color," irrespective of the narrative, as is too often the case. Moreover, they are minutely accurate in detail, although so well managed that they never weary by their undue length. A general sense of proportion, in fact, is one of the characteristics of the book, as well as natural, yet clever, conversation and capital character-drawing. A Russian novel—one written by a foreigner, at least—would not be complete unless the plot hinged chiefly on the manœuvres of revolutionists; and the present work does its whole duty in that respect, including mysterious meetings, devious ways, sensational murders, and the like. For another merit the book may be heartily recommended to authors who are ambitious to write "Russian" novels: it proves how powerful an effect of nationality may be produced by intelligent observation and attention to details. For, as a matter of fact, this story does not penetrate much beyond the externals of *Russian* life. Even the rascally rich merchant and ex-convict, who is the twin-villain together with the plausible Pole, and the principal (almost the only) Russian in the story, is an international rather than a purely Russian type. For the rest, the characters are Americans, Poles, and English people, and the life described is not that of Russian circles, but that of the circumscribed foreign colony, which does not mingle with Russians and of which Russians know nothing. In short, while 'On Peter's Island' is neither a great book, nor a book such as a Russian would write, nor, strictly speaking, a Russian story, it is so interesting and so skilfully executed that it ought to hold a very good rank among the popular novels of the season.

Studies in European Literature: Being the Taylorian Lectures 1889-1899. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.

This handsome volume excellently exemplifies the solidarity of European letters. The work of eleven different hands, touching the literature of five nations, in a period of time from Boccaccio to Prosper Mérimée, it has, amid all this variety, an essential and significant unity. It is vitalized by a fresh interest in the study of comparative literature. For a course of quasi-academic lectures the series as a whole is notably free from the *aura morta* of the traditional learning in this kind; with but a single exception, perhaps, all have a taking briskness and unconventionality, proving again that erudition properly digested *non inflat*. It is obviously impossible to notice minutely all the members of so comprehensive a collection. It must suffice to draw attention to the range and general quality of the papers as a preliminary of the more detailed treatment of two of them.

The initial paper, on "Literary Criticism in France," by Professor Dowden, is worthy of its position. It traces the evolution of French critical theory and method from Sainte-Beuve through Nisard, Schérer, and Brunetière, with some account of the criticism of the opposing camp of Taine and Hennequin. Considering that this paper was written twelve years ago, the discussion of the twy-formed aspect of French criticism, naturalistic and idealistic, is remarkably illuminating; the prophecy of a coming synthesis of the two has already been fulfilled in part in M. Brunetière's later work. As always in Professor Dowden's writing, we have many fragments of trenchant criticism by the way. Particularly good and quotable is his statement of the disparity of the critical doctrines of the 'Causeries de Lundi' and those underlying the 'Soirées de Medan':

"But what a contrast between the spirits of the two men; what a contrast in the application to life even of the ideas which they possessed in common! M. Zola, whose mind is over-ridden, if ever a mind was, by the spirit of a system—whose work, misnamed realistic, is one monstrous idealizing of humanity under the types of the man brute and the woman brute—and Sainte-Beuve, who in his method would fain be the disciple of our English Bacon."

The second lecture, Walter Pater's on Prosper Mérimée, is already known to readers of the 'Miscellaneous Studies' as one of the characteristic pieces of the author's intimate, interpretative subtlety, and an especially good example of his knack of re-telling a story. Seven years later—to break the chronological sequence for the sake of a significant juxtaposition—came an unusually satisfactory piece of criticism in M. Bourget's lecture in French on Pater's stylistic master, Gustave Flaubert. It begins with an affectionate and reverent tribute to the memory of Pater, that "parfait prosateur." The essay itself is an admirable piece of work, quite in Pater's vein. The profound personal melancholy which informed Flaubert's work, and gave it a charm and permanence which would never have been attained by its theoretic objectivity, is felt and stated with great sympathy and precision; and the whole is a singularly lucid and flexibly modulated example of French prose at its best.

The student of style may gain much instruction by comparing this paper with M. Stéphane Mallarmé's "La Musique et les Lettres," which preceded it by three years. It is the old opposition of a scholarly and urbane realism against an enthusiastic neo-mysticism. Where Bourget's writing is a closely wrought, orderly paragraphed organization of ideas, Mallarmé's is a broken, oracular arabesque. His general contention is the familiar one of Poe and Baudelaire—which later became the gospel of the "Décadents," and even received the sanction of Pater—that music, by virtue of its direct and immediate expressiveness, is the norm and limit of all art.

The most musical of poets, Giacomo Leopardi, is discussed by Mr. W. M. Rossetti in a careful but rather pedestrian paper. Italian literature is further represented by Prof. Ker's lively study of Boccaccio's humanistic temperament, and an excellent appreciation, by Mr. H. R. F. Brown, of Paoli Sarpi, scientist, literary scholar and poltical reformer, who what he "dared to dream of dared to do." Nor is German literature neglected. Mr. T. W. Rolleston has a sound and sympathetic study of Lessing, and of Germany's debt to him; while Prof. Herford has realized the fruits of "Goethe's Italian Journey" with rather exceptional insight.

But perhaps the most striking thing about this collection is the evidence it gives of an increasing interest in the literature of Spain. Notwithstanding the spread of many literary types essentially Spanish, and in spite of the enormous popularity of 'Don Quixote,' the European mind at large has always found something cryptic and esoteric in Peninsular letters. But since Bowle, Southey, and Ticknor, the national literature which produced Cervantes and Calderon has received more and more attention from English, French, and German scholars. The first of the contributions of the present volume to the study of Spanish letters is M. Morel-Fatio's "L'Espagne du Don Quijote." We feel some commiseration for the Oxford gathering compelled to sit through twelve thousand words of not very Attic French; but while this is a long and very roundabout paper, it is, nevertheless, very informing. M. Morel-Fatio pursues no funambulous course in endeavoring to trace hidden ideals of Spanish character in the spirit of Cervantes's work. He applies the inductive, Sainte-Beuve method to the actual characters and incidents of 'Don Quixote,' and, by the aid of sound historical erudition, contrives to present an adequate picture of the life of the time. The life of the road, the manners of hidalgo and innkeeper, of nobility and riff-raff, the customs of the city and of the country, of plain and of mountain forest, political turmoil, economic progress, and ecclesiastical corruption, are all presented with admirable fulness and color.

Not the least useful essay in the book is Mr. H. Butler Clarke's study of "The Spanish Rogue Story." It contains a few minor inaccuracies. The 'Coplas de Jorge Manrique' is referred to "the later *sixteenth* century" (p. 319); at page 325 the titles of Rowland's English version of 'Lazarillo' and Mabbe's of 'Don Guzman' are confused; the 'Castigado,' or expurgated version of 'Lazarillo,' was not printed in 1572 (p. 326); the approvals, according to the collation of Dr. Chandler in his 'Romances of Roguery,' were August 5 and 21, 1573, and the imprimatur is of the same year. But, notwithstanding these peccadillos, the rationale of the picaresque tradition is conceived with great clearness and very picturesquely stated. Mr. Clarke has fully recognized the literary and social background of the Spanish rogue, and has been exceptionally happy in distinguishing his æsthetic value. In reading 'Lazarillo' or 'Don Guzman,' says Mr. Clarke,

"'experience is widened without after taste of guilt, the imagination is stimulated, and the purpose of art, not, indeed, in its highest form, but in a form which all alike can share, is fulfilled. . . . Moral standards change so much that he [the rogue] now figures chiefly in criminal statistics, for the distinction between *picaro* and criminal, though very real, is disregarded by the law. The *picaro* is guilty of almost every crime, yet he is not black-hearted; above all he is no hypocrite. He is the irresponsible product of a state of society, he is primitive man in an artificial environment. . . . In order to enjoy his story, he must be looked upon as extra-moral, just as ambassadors and their belongings are by a fiction extra-territorial."

In closing his account with the work of Quevedo, Mr. Clarke fails to include the final stage of the evolution of the Spanish picaresque romance. It is only in the 'Teresa' and 'Trapaza' of Solarzano that we see the full literary fruition of the form—the emergence of a typical personality out of the inchoate mass of thievish and scurrilous incident. It was in this stage that the *picaro* lent himself to the more workmanlike and literary treatment of the French romancers. Le Sage's 'Gil Blas' and his capital version of 'Don Guzman,' "purgée des moralitez superfluës," owe much to Solarzano. Mr. Clarke, however, is not so much concerned with the

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literary affiliations of the rogue as with his relation to the Spanish society of his time, and the function of the story as a medium for social satire; and in this direction his study leaves little to be desired.

Viewed at large, these lectures serve to illustrate Mr. Dowden's theory of the trend of criticism, which concludes the first of the course:

"Literature has turned away from the lyrical, the personal, or, as they call it, the subjective, to an ardent study of the external world and the life of man in society. The lyrical, the personal, has doubtless a subordinate place in literary criticism, but the chief work of criticism is that of ascertaining, classifying, and interpreting the facts of literature. We may anticipate that criticism in the immediate future, if less touched with emotion, will be better informed and less wilful than it has been in the past. If it should be founded on exact knowledge illuminated by just views, and inspired by the temper of equity, we shall have some gains to set over against our losses."

Catalogue of the Morse Collection of Japanese Pottery, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston. By Edward S. Morse, Keeper of the Japanese Pottery. With 68 photogravure plates, of which 40 are accompanied by guide plates drawn by the author, and 1,545 potters' marks in text. Cambridge. 1901. Pp. xii, 384.

This book is an unusually handsome and well-made quarto, simple, dignified, and manly, and an ideal catalogue of a collection of works of art. It may therefore invite the attention of many students not specially devoted to the art of the Far East, nor even specially to the keramic art. The frontispiece shows a hall in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, that long, side-lighted gallery occupied by the Morse collection. Ten cases are set in a long row like platoons of soldiers when the regiment is "in column." Each case is set with one of its narrow edges close against the upright pier which separates two very large windows; each case has two fronts, and each front is divided by an upright which helps support the shelves. We have, then, forty shallow receptacles, each fitted with shelves, and looking like bookcases except that the shelves are more irregularly placed; and each of these cases is the subject of one photogravure plate in the body of the present work. Forty plates, each one showing the larger and the smaller pots, boxes, bottles, bowls, saucers, and incense burners arranged on from five to seven shelves, display the whole collection. Correspondingly, the printed catalogue of the pieces reaches the number 5,324, which is attached to a figure (nine inches high and interesting in character, expression, and modelling), the impressed mark upon which may be read in any one of three different ways.

Every one of these forty half-tone plates has printed upon a thin leaf which faces it a diagrammatic translation, so to speak. Rough but expressive outline drawings of *all* the pieces shown in the photograph are arranged in exact correspondence with the picture, and every one of these sketches has its catalogue number appended. You find in the photographic plate the piece which interests you; you look at the opposite page for its rendering in outline; you note that its number is (say) 5,275, and by turning back two pages you find that the mysterious pile of three pieces and a cover with two curious downward sloping spouts form a still, thirteen and a half inches high, of warm gray clay, with light brown glaze, with flowers in white slip and the name Hozan impressed. An index of the provinces of the Empire succeeds the catalogue, and this is followed by an index to potters filling three of the large pages and an index of names filling ten pages, and here those of us who had heard of the book in advance thought that our new possession would have its ending.

There is, however, an appendix, though it is not called so—a series of twenty-eight photographic plates, in which some of the same pieces that are to be found in the forty catalogue plates are reproduced on a much larger scale. These are admirable pictures. They are large enough to let the patterns of painting or of stamping be seen, to allow the exact effect of inlay or of slip decoration to be judged, and, except that here and there a side turned from the light is really too black, and suffers from the lack of that rare artistic excellence known roughly as translucent shadows, is as nearly perfect as a monochromatic representation of the parti-colored piece can be. Pains have been taken to focus for the negative the especially important feature of each piece, as may be seen in Plate VI., where the round dish, No. 1108, shows off its long inscription of fourteen ideographs quite perfectly. Reference to the catalogue tells us that this inscription is a poem, and the student feels that he has no right to ask for a translation of that; it is, moreover, perfectly legible to him who can read it. In like manner, one of the gems of the collection when considered as a collection of works of art is shown in Plate XXVIII., No. 4645, a covered jar with a bail handle and with these peculiarities, that the bulging shape is closely like that of one of those Cologne jars which we call Greybeards and Bellarmines, but without the small and slender neck, which is replaced here by the cover, and that this cover has to be slipped in between the uprights of the handle when removed or replaced—each of these an unusual circumstance in Japanese pottery.

The preface sets forth the purposes kept in view by the maker of this collection and his friends and hearty supporters, the director and the trustees of the wisely managed Boston Museum. It is pointed out that in the Museum of Fine Arts the arrangement of the pieces had need to be somewhat artistic, bringing the important specimens of design well to the point of easy observation; but it is further shown how the keramic interest of the most devotedly keramist of all peoples has been subserved, and how the ethnological, descriptive, and artistic uses of such a collection have also been promoted. It is an extraordinary showing, too, which the preface makes—that of the very large circle of friends and allies who have been laid under contribution by Mr. Morse, many of them for specimens presented, many others for aid in research; the United States and Japan appearing together in the persons of their more intelligent citizens. All this has been rendered possible by the contributors to the fund which made the collection the property of the Museum. Then follows an introduction which is in itself a curious treatise on Japanese fine art as applied to objects of daily use. It should be read in connection with the briefer prefaces to those divisions of the catalogue which correspond to the provinces of the kingdom. A series of paragraphs explain intelligently the allusive and sentimental significance of some of the most common decorations. Moreover, it is pointed out how generally the Japanese use pottery where Western people use glass, silver, pewter, and porcelain. It is rather hard for a modern who cannot find wine-glasses thin enough for his old wine of Bordeaux, to imagine the refined men of Plato's time drinking the wines of their choice from a kylix of baked clay whose lip is the rounded edge of a wall at least a sixteenth of an inch in thickness. The Japanese are also capable of that feeling for the appropriateness of the vessel to the drink, for they take saki out of the thinnest of porcelain cups, or, under certain circumstances, out of lacquered wooden saucers as thin and as delicate as the porcelain itself. But pottery is the thing after all; and when one has had the privilege of drinking the decoction of powdered tea from the lip of a bowl, thick, indeed, but delicately worked and finely glazed, he understands how possible it is to become accustomed to this as well as to the comparatively thick lip of the cup from which he drinks *café au lait* in the morning.

The dedicated objects, the symbolical objects, the vessels for the keeping of food, for the cooking of food, for the growing of plants, for smoking, for tea-drinking, for burning of incense—all of these are recorded in critically accurate language. The motives of painted and other keramic decoration are described. The most amusing thing in all this body of information is the account of the amateur potters, who appear to be the special hindrance to the cataloguer in pursuit of thoroughness; for, as the introduction says:

"It has been the custom, in Japan, for devotees of the tea ceremonies *usu-cha* and *sen-cha*, to try their hand at an art they all adore: . . . for example, the amateur potter has made a pilgrimage to some distant province, from which region he brings back a quantity of clay; he gathers materials for glazing from another province, settles down two hundred miles from the last place, and struggles with the difficulties of this time-honored art by shaping a bowl or incense-box, and, having baked it, may apply the glaze when he gets home, and bake it again. An artist friend adorns it with a sprig of bamboo, and signs it with his pseudonym. Such are the difficulties in the way of identification of these veritable puzzles."

The Stage in America, 1897-1900. By Norman Hapgood. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

Mr. Hapgood's book, in spite of its rather juvenile cocksureness, its occasional unfairness, its queer standards of histrionic excellence and dramatic composition, is something quite distinct from and infinitely superior to the great majority of ephemeral theatrical volumes, composed of insignificant biography, padded with trivial anecdote or crazy puffery, and baited with pretty photographs. It is the work of a man, lacking in experience, to be sure, not too catholic in taste, and over-fond of generalizing upon somewhat narrow and arbitrary theories, which, however true they may be in themselves, are not of universal application, but who has brought to it thought, capacity, and information, and who, having formed independent if not always original ideas, knows how to express them in forcible and attractive literary fashion. Even those lovers of and believers in the drama who are unable to agree unreservedly with

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all his precepts and conclusions, will appreciate the vigor and general intelligence of his criticisms, the sincerity of his convictions, and his comprehension of the fundamental principles upon which the theatre must be conducted if it is to demonstrate its right to be considered an art.

A considerable part of the book is reprint; and of that which is new a good deal is not important. It would have been difficult, indeed, to fill 400 pages with very weighty matter concerning the stage-doings in this country, or elsewhere, during the last three years. The opening chapter on the much talked-of theatrical syndicate was first published in the *International Monthly*, that on the drama of ideas in the *Contemporary Review*, and others are largely reproductions from the *Bookman*, the *Commercial Advertiser*, the *Atlantic Monthly*, etc. The syndicate article is valuable as a notably clear and concise statement of the inception, the development, the operation, and the effect of that mischievous monopoly, although it would have been well if more attention had been paid to what is, perhaps, its most pernicious influence, its conversion of moderately competent actors into "stars," and its practical annihilation of all schools of training for novices. Incidentally, the story is a striking illustration of the sagacity of Mr. Daly's remark that actors, when their personal interests are concerned, are far too selfish to be capable of organization into a practical protective association.

In his essay on the drama of ideas, although Mr. Hapgood's estimates of certain plays, "Secret Service" and "Sherlock Holmes," for instance, are curious, there is much common sense, especially in relation to the modern psychological and symbolical drama. Nothing is much more ridiculous than the notion, so common among the younger rhapsodists, that there must be genius in whatever is mystical, carnal, obscure, or largely incomprehensible. Simplicity and clarity are the unfailing characteristics of all the greatest poetry. Symbolism, of course, can be detected by the eye of faith in anything, but if it is not obvious, it is not particularly valuable. As for psychology, that is necessarily an element in any work of fiction that deals with men and women. The trouble is, that in many of the dramas which profess to be constructed on strict psychological principles—and it is not an exact science—the development is either inconclusive or contrary to common experience, while the theme is morbid and repulsive. The heaven-born dramatist deals with human nature in its broadest phases, and finds therein a boundless scope, without recourse to the subtilties of scientific analysis, and thus appeals irresistibly not only to the public heart, but to the public understanding. Mr. Hapgood underrates the intelligence of the theatre-going masses. He seems to think that the crowd appreciates only the broader melodramatic or humorous effects in the higher drama. This is only partly true, if true at all. The famous soliloquies of Shakspere are applauded quite as fervently as the combats. There were no more acute critics than the "mechanicals" who worshipped Phelps in the legitimate drama for nearly twenty years at Sadler's Wells.

As has been intimated, Mr. Hapgood's judgment is apt to be a little precipitate and flighty, and not always in accordance with his expressed theories. His discourses on the plays and dramatists of the day are vivacious and interesting, but it is rather disconcerting to find him coupling James A. Herne and William Gillette as the two ablest American dramatists, and awarding to the latter the special credit of originality. Mr. Herne, undoubtedly, has done good and original work, notably in "Griffith Davenport," which contains at least one intensely human and dramatic scene, and in "Sag Harbor," which has excellent local color and some very genuine pathos. His "Margaret Fleming" was superior melodrama, and in his "Shore Acres" there were laudable imaginative touches. But his pieces are of uneven quality. Mr. Gillette, at best, is only an adroit theatrical sensationalist and expert manipulator of old but superficially effective theatrical material. It is still more astonishing to read Mr. Hapgood's enthusiastic laudation of Mr. Mitchell's crude parody of 'Vanity Fair,' and of Mrs. Fisk's *Becky Sharp*, especially after his comments upon some of the other book plays. But he is always more convincing in his general reflections than in his details. This remark applies even to his capital article upon the Irving Place Theatre, which is extravagant and unjust in some of its comparisons, but as a whole is a well-deserved tribute to a most competent, valuable, and instructive organization and its enlightened director. Mr. Conried is the one example in this country of the well-equipped manager. He not only is personally familiar with the stage literature, past and present, of his country, but is endowed with the artistic spirit, and realizes that the play, if worth anything, is of more importance than its trappings. Having, after years of patient endeavor, succeeded in organizing a real stock company capable of at least an intelligent interpretation of drama of every degree, from poetic and historic tragedy to the latest farce, he is able to present every season a repertory singularly rich and varied, at once educational and entertaining. It is probably the fact that his best achievements in the way of production are not always the most remunerative, but this is because his German audience, owing to peculiar social conditions which cannot now be considered, is only a small fraction of the great body of citizens of German descent, and long runs are impossible. But, being something more than a mere speculative showman, he is willing to make an occasional sacrifice of gain for art's sake, and has thus raised his theatre to a place of honorable distinction. An English theatre in New York, conducted upon equally sound artistic and business principles, with an unlimited audience to depend upon, would yield such solid financial returns that its very prosperity would compel imitation and bring about a revolution in the whole system of management.

Space will not permit discussion of Mr. Hapgood's criticisms of contemporaneous performances, nor is anything of the sort necessary. Generally speaking, his estimates of American actors of the day are lacking in that sense of proportion which can be attained only through familiarity with standards not now existent and not likely to be soon revived. Youth in this instance is at a disadvantage. His comments upon modern plays and dramatists are, as has been hinted, apt to be smart, rather than broad or judicious; hasty, dogmatic, and self-opinionated; but never dull. In many cases the subject-matter is quite unworthy of the attention bestowed upon it. But that, perhaps, was inevitable if a substantial volume was to be made about the theatrical incidents of three almost barren years. The book contains much—including the reviews of casual performances by novices of Russian, French, and German drama, and frequent quotations—which might be described, rather uncharitably perhaps, as padding, but it is written with a frankness, ability, purpose, and conviction that atone for its bumptiousness, and lift it entirely out of the ruck of box-office publications. It is a genuine bit of theatrical literature, well worth the reading.

Health and a Day. B. Lewis G. Janes, author of 'Life as a Fine Art,' 'A Study of Primitive Christianity,' etc., etc. Boston: James H. West Company.

Dr. Janes's title will be recognized by all Emersonians and many others as a part of Emerson's "Give me health and a day, and I will make the pomp of emperors ridiculous." This book is a series of little essays which set forth in a pleasant manner the essentials of a healthy life, or rather what Dr. Janes considers the essentials. Some of his readers will, no doubt, apprehend a lack of the traditional theological and ecclesiastical elements. These do not mean much for Dr. Janes, except as expressions of man's evolutionary course, though he is always reverent of others' reverence. He is well known, or should be, as a devout disciple of Herbert Spencer, and as having done quite as much as Dr. John Fiske or the late E. L. Youmans to disseminate Spencer's philosophical and ethical beliefs. These are fundamental to the edifice here constructed fourteen chapters high. But we have nowhere a crude reproduction of the master's thought. Everywhere it is perfectly assimilated, and mingled freely with what has come to the writer from many different sources, preëminently his own careful meditation on the nature of the good and useful life. Dr. Janes has attended thoughtfully to the criticism which has been made on Spencer during the last thirty years. To some extent, it has modified his original assent; and where he still holds fast the integrity of that, he does it with such ability and resource as would make him no despicable antagonist for the best equipped of Spencer's enemies.

But the relation of Dr. Janes's book to Spencer's philosophy is interior and not formal or excessive, and can easily be insisted on too much. Willing to confirm his own opinions with those of the best thinkers, for every sentence from Spencer he has several from Emerson. The defect of his book is the absence of any touch of humor, and of his style a preponderance of Latinic words. What is best in it is not the fruit of reading, but of personal experience. The book, we are quite sure, was lived before it was written. Beginning with the care of the body, it goes on to the intellectual and ethical aspects of man's personal and social life, never for a moment losing sight of the fact that, on this bank and shoal of time, man is not a body with a soul or a soul with a body, but at once body and soul, and that whatever hurts or helps the one helps or hurts the other, and the central man.

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There is mellow wisdom concerning the care of the body, food (for that and for the mind), the true education, "Vocation and Avocation," the uses of travel, "The Ministry of Pain," the social organism, etc. Incidentally all of the great problems which are affecting us are touched upon. The Christian Scientist is reckoned with, the Imperialist, the man of war; each with so much urbanity that he would be a churlish fellow who should resent what is so kindly meant. We should have better men and women, better home-life, better politics if the lessons tendered here so graciously were taken well to heart.

Factory People and their Employees. By Edwin L. Shuey. New York: Lentilhon & Co.

There are few directions in which more substantial advances in civilization can be made than in improving the relations between employers and workmen. In certain respects their interests are conflicting. Workmen naturally desire to sell their labor at the highest price possible, and employers are under continual pressure to keep down their expenditure for this account. But in other respects their interests are identical. It is of the utmost importance to workmen that their employers' business should be prosperous; and it is equally important to employers that their workmen should be maintained at the highest degree of efficiency. There is, perhaps, little reason to suppose that conflicts over the rate of wages will ever cease. So long as profits fluctuate, wages must vary, while workmen will generally oppose a stubborn resistance to their reduction. But the influences that tend to increase efficiency not only are intrinsically beneficial, but also lessen the severity of the struggles over wages. In the multiplication of such influences, therefore, we may find the only practical solution of the "labor problem."

The author of this little book does not consider the question of wages, strikes, unions, and arbitrations, but confines himself to a narration of the various methods devised by enlightened employers for improving the lives of humble coadjutors. The record, which is chiefly confined to this country, is impressive and exhilarating. One manufacturer after another has awakened to the possibility of improving the conditions of work within the factory, and the conditions of existence without. Factory buildings have been cleansed, adorned, and almost beautified. The grounds about them have been laid out by landscape architects, and the houses and grounds of the workmen have been scientifically improved. Prizes have been given for the best-kept gardens; parks have been laid out, playgrounds established; libraries, gymnasiums, churches, and schoolhouses have been built. Bath-rooms and lunch-rooms have been provided in the factories; ventilation and lighting have been attended to; chairs with backs and footrests have replaced stools and benches; elevators have been introduced and ice-water supplied. Various forms of pensions and insurance have been devised, savings funds established, and coöperative stores introduced. The list is too long to be given here in full, and it would be invidious to specify particular employers as examples of philanthropy. That there is a bright side to the lives of workmen in factories is clearly proved by Mr. Shuey, and we can heartily commend his book to those who are inclined to take gloomy views of the condition of the working classes.

English Politics in Early Virginia History. By Alexander Brown, D.C.L. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

The purpose of this book is to prove that the planting of Virginia was an attempt of the "Patriot party in England to plant a popular course of government in America"; that the subsequent history of the province consists of the efforts of the Crown and "court party" to misrepresent and baffle that attempt; that throughout the colonial period the Crown pursued the policy of destroying or sequestering the documents which placed the aims of the Patriot party in their true light, and of allowing only such histories or materials for history to see the day as suited the court party; and that in consequence all that history has been distorted and a great wrong done.

It is manifestly hard to prove a theory which starts with the assumption that the necessary evidence has beer destroyed; still, we have a very considerable body of contemporary public documents of the first importance, and an immense mass of letters, memoirs, etc., from which we may gain a pretty clear insight into the time and its issues. It would have helped his case if Mr. Brown had proved that there was any "Patriot party" in England in 1606; that there was any Patriot party in Virginia in the first half of the century, and that the squabbles with the governors and the councils had any broader than local and temporary significance; that any document has been destroyed the possession of which would radically change the accepted history; and if he had shown what special facts of political importance have been concealed or misrepresented. It does not seem to the present reviewer that this has been done.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Albee, John. Remembrances of Emerson. Robert G. Cooke.
An Englishman's Love-Letters, being the Missing Answers to an Englishwoman's Love-Letters. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.; New York: Frank F. Lovell Book Co.
Archibald, J. F. J. Blueshirt and Khaki: A Comparison. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Blaisdell, E. A. and M. F. Speller, Book I. Macmillan. 16 cents.
Burton, Richard. John Greenleaf Whittier. (Beacon Biographies.) Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Cusack-Smith, William. Encyclopedia of the Game of Whist. Cassell & Co.
Cyclopedia of American Horticulture, N—Q. Macmillan. $5.
Dodd, Anna B. The American Husband in Paris. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.
Duguid, Charles. How to Read the Money Article. New ed. London: Effingham Wilson.
Fletcher, W. I., and Bowker, R. R. The Annual Literary Index, 1900. Publishers' Weekly.
Genung, J. F. The Working Principles of Rhetoric. Boston: Ginn & Co.
George, H. B. The Relations of Geography and History. Henry Frowde. $1.10.
Hains, T. J. The Cruise of the Petrel. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Hay, Helen. The Rose of Dawn. R. H. Russell.
Helm, G. H. History of Ventriloquism. Translated from the French of Paul Garnault. Published by the Author.
Howison, G. H. The Limits of Evolution. Macmillan. $1.60.
Hurll, Estelle M. Titian. (Riverside Art Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Hutton, Alfred. The Sword and the Centuries. London: Grant Richards; New York: Scribners. $4.
Kelly, Edmond. Government, or Human Evolution. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Kenyon, W. J. First Years in Handicrafts. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Keyser, L. S. Babby Redstart, and Other Bird Stories. (Twentieth Century Classics and School Reading.) Topeka: Crane & Co.
King, Bolton, and Okey, Thomas. Italy To-day. London: James Nisbet & Co. 12s.
Kingsley, Charles. Perseus: A Tale for Younger Folk. R. H. Russell.
Lazarus, M. The Ethics of Judaism, Part II. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.
McCarthy, Justin. Mononia: A Love Story of 'Forty-eight. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
McCullough, J. D. Orations and Essays of Edward John Phelps. Harpers. $3.50.
MacLachlan, T. B. David Livingstone. (Famous Scots Series.) Scribners. 75 cents.
Putnam, David. A Text-Book of Psychology. American Book Co. $1.
Ralph, Julian. War's Brighter Side. D. Appleton & Co.
Smith, E. W. The Creed of Presbyterians. The Baker & Taylor Co. 60 cents.
Sutherland, George. Twentieth Century Inventions: A Forecast. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Torrey, Bradford. Everyday Birds. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Villain, George. Le Fer, la Houille et la Métallurgie à la Fin du XIXe Siècle. Paris: Armand Colin.
Vivekânanda, Swâmi. My Master. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Vlymen, W. T. Tennyson's Idyls of the King. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Walsh, Correa Moylan. The Measurement of Exchange-Value. Macmillan. $3.
Wells, H. P. Fly-Rods and Fly-Tackle. New ed. Harpers. $1.75.
White, Hervey. When Eve Was not Created, and Other Stories. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.
Wood, Benjamin. Bugle Calls. Brentano's. $1.

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